Training Teachers for English Schools in Travancore.

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CHAPTER I.

Problems of Indian Education.

The object of this investigation is to study the problem of training teachers for English Schools in an Indian province. Since the investigator worked for over five years in the Teachers College at Trivandrum, which is an institution established for this avowed purpose, the study will, in effect amount to an evaluation of the traditions and present practices of this institution, with a view to suggesting means and methods of bringing them into step with the best practices of teacher training elsewhere in the world, due allowance being made to the needs and conditions of the locality.

The exact significance of the phrase "English Schools" should be made explicit here. In Travancore all children start their education in the mother tongue; but after a few years of it there comes a parting of the ways. Some continue to study all subjects in the mother tongue in the "Vernacular Schools", acquiring a smattering of English optatively as a second language. Others proceed to the "English Schools" where gradually but progressively English grows to be the chief medium of instruction.

Though the two kinds of schools are otherwise independent of each other, in the matter of teacher-supply they slightly overlap. The teachers trained in the Trivandrum Teachers College are mostly absorbed in the "English Schools"; but some are employed in the primary grades of all kinds of schools, as English teachers and as subject teachers in the higher grades of the "Vernacular Schools", while most teacher-training institutions for the "Vernacular Schools" are staffed by them. With all that, the wisdom of confining ourselves to the study of teacher-training problems for English Schools, not only consists in delimiting our study to the work of the Trivandrum Teachers College, but also in cutting ourselves off from the problems of Vernacular and Elementary education, for which teachers are prepared in other institutions. The practice in these latter institutions will certainly be influenced and enriched by what obtains in the Teachers College at Trivandrum, both directly by imitation and indirectly through the background of their instructional and administrative staffs; but in such cases the adaptation to local needs must play the larger part. Whereas, since the education offered in the English schools is more or less of the same type and kind offered elsewhere in the world, it stands to benefit more directly by the services of a teaching staff alive to educational practice elsewhere in the world. In short, the teachers in English Schools should be keenly sensitive of and responsive to, every current of educational opinion in the world; and should therefore be trained in an institution that reflects the best teacher training practice available at the time. This investigation proceeds to find out how far this is true of the Teachers College at Trivandrum and to suggest methods to make it more and more true of it.

The Training College at Trivandrum is the only institution of its kind, south of Madras. It is meant to prepare both graduate and undergraduate teachers for the English schools of Travancore, and graduate teachers for the English Schools of Cochin. These two adjoining Native States can be treated as one for very many different reasons.

Travancore is the size of Massachusetts or New Jersey, with an area of eight thousand square miles and a population of about four millions. Cochin has an area of fifteen hundred square miles with a population of about a million. They occupy the stretch of land between the Western Ghats and the sea, in the extreme south of the peninsula, Cochin being to the north of Travancore. Together they form the southern part of Malabar and are referred to as Kerala. Caught between the mountains and the sea, blessed with an abundant rainfall, *Malayalam*, the Indian name of the language and of the country, is descriptive of the hills and valleys, which are such a prominent feature of the landscape. A land of rivers and lakes, of waving palm groves, thick forests and blue mountains, over which poets and prose writers have grown eloquent, [1] it has the material prosperity on which learning thrives. Facing the West, this land has borne the impact of other civilizations, through the ages. Cochin and Alleppey are ocean ports, through which in historic times Arab and Jew (68 A. D.), Syrian, Portuguese and Dutch entered the country. [2] Jew and Syrian have left behind colonies, and the others, footprints of their history. Toward the end of the eighteenth century, both states allied themselves with the British to repulse a Muhommadan invader, and have continued the alliance to the present day. This has secured them their integrity. Safe behind the bastions of the mountains, enjoying a long succession of Hindu kings, Hindu culture, in the form of Sanskrit learning, has survived in this part of India. Every now and then some priceless classic of Sanskrit literature is unearthed in the archives of these states. What F. W. Thomas said of India as a whole is especially true of this part of the country. "Education is no exotic in India. There is no country where the love of learning had so early an origin or has exercised so lasting and powerful an

1. Pierre Loti: India, pp. 33-85.

2. Lowell-Thomas: India, Chapter 4.

influence." [1] *Malayalam*, the language of the country, is heavily indebted to Sanskrit literature, and makes free use of the Sanskrit idiom. A country so prone to education, happened to be ruled by a dynasty which has made it a consistent purpose to promote the spread of education. As early as 1817, Ranee Gauri Parvathi Bai, a queen of Travancore, proclaimed that the state should defray the whole cost of the education of its people, in order that there might be no backwardness in the spread of enlightenment among them ; that by diffusion of education, they might become better subjects and public servants, and that the reputation of the state may be advanced thereby." [2] The policy so well initiated was so thoroughly carried out by her successors, especially during the reign of the last Maharaja, that the formation of a University for Travancore was mooted and seemed imminent.

Intercourse with the West brought in its train Christian Missionaries. This part of India is spoken of as the Missionary Coast, and twenty per cent of the population is Christian. [3] In this country, as elsewhere, missionaries have proved to be the pioneers of education. There is a colony of Syrian Christians in Kerala which traces its history as far back as the third century A. D. [4] St. Francis Xavier came in the seventeenth century and greatly expanded the Catholic Church, which had already established itself, under the auspices of the Portuguese. Early in the nineteenth century, English missionaries began to work in the country and started to give instruction in English at about the time when David Hare and others were establishing the earliest English schools in Bengal.[5] Indeed the first State school at the capital was founded by an Englishman working

1. Sharp : Educational Records Pt. I, Chap. 1.
2. Edict in Malayalam reprinted in the Travancore University Committee Report, p. 31.
3. Lowell—Thomas-India: Chap. 3. Thirty in Travancore. Census of 1921 Travancore Report p. 37.
4. Netram—Will India Become Christian, p. 44.
5. Travancore University Committee Report, p. 13.

in a missionary institution, whose services were borrowed by the then ruling prince.[1] Long before Lord Macaulay's famous minute decided for English education (1835) for India, English schools had become firmly established in Travancore under missionary auspices. To-day missions remain one of the major educational agencies of the State.

Another predisposing cause for the rapid spread of education is the status and position of women in this part of India. The freedom enjoyed by the women of Malabar, where the matriarchate still prevails, is well known. Succession to the throne in Travancore and Cochin is in the female line. Not the king's son, but his sister's son, is the heirapparent. It was so in the succession to property until recently. This practice gave great influence and dignity to women in social life. Instead of being segregated, as in other parts of India, they lived an open life and played a prominent part in society. When English education came into the country, the girls were sent to the schools as freely as were the boys. The primary classes were mostly co-educational, but as the number of girls who emerged from the elementary grades increased, a sufficient number of girls' schools of the middle grade could not be built for them rapidly enough, and so they too became co-educational. The same movement has gone on in high schools and in colleges, until at the present day co-education has become the common practice of educating the sexes in the country. In the year 1912-13 there were in Travancore 31 girls in college, 1408 girls in secondary schools, and 55,702 girls in elementary schools. In 1921—22, the corresponding numbers were 194, 6861, and 126,520. In Cochin there were 40,672 girls in schools and colleges in 1925, and 45,365 in 1926.[2]

It was observed by the Calcutta University Commission[3] that except in the United States, Canada and Japan,

1. Nagam Aiya State Manual of Travancore Vol. II p. 447.
2. Travancore University Committee Report p. 48. Report of the Administration of the Education Department of Cochin for the year 1926-27 p. 57.
3. Report, Vol. I, Chap. 8.

there was nothing comparable to the eagerness for secondary education as shown in certain areas of India, where there was an increase of 19% in the number of secondary schools and of 33% in the number of pupils in them in the quinquennium 1912-17. These figures were greatly exceeded in Travancore. In 1912, the number of secondary schools was 72; in 1922 it was 165, and in 1923, 180. The number of students in them was 14,807 in 1913; 39,123 in 1922 and 41,512 in 1923, showing a rise in schools and scholars respectively of 30·5 and 65 per cent in the quinquennium following 1913. In the next quinquennium they had risen by 92·6 and 69·1 per cent respectively. While during 1917-22, the number of complete secondary schools in India rose by 29 per cent and the scholars in them by 22 per cent., for the same period the corresponding figures for Travancore were 46·7 and 58·8 per cent. In Cochin and Malabar, for the same period, the strength of the High School had increased by 23·4 per cent, and 19·2 per cent. These figures show that the rate of progression in secondary education is thus much greater in Kerala than in British India, and within Kerala, it is greatest in Travancore. [1]

Such figures prove that in Travancore, at least, education has progressed with great momentum without any artificial stimulus. During the twenty years comprised in the period 1908—1928, the aggregate number of pupils has increased 150 per cent. Seventyeight per cent. of the children of school going age has been brought under instruction. Commenting on such statistics, the Director of Public Instruction says, "Primary education has been free since 1910, but it has not been made compulsory. Compulsion is superfluous in a country where the enthusiasm of the people in the matter of educating their children has shown no sign of waning."[2] So phenomenal an advance has secured these two Indian states a unique all-India

1. Travancore University Committee Report, pp. 34 and 35.
2. Administration Report of the Travancore Education Department 1928-29, pp. 11 and 12.

position in regard to education. The Simon Commission awards them first place in the matter of literacy.[1]

	Literates per 100 Males of 5 years. and over,	Literates per 100 Females of 5 yrs. and over.
Travancore State	38·5	17·3
Cochin	31·7	11·5
British India	14·4	2·0
All India	13·9	2·1

These figures prove that the problems of Indian education are seen in their most accentuated form in the part of the country we are dealing with. Indian education, both in its best and its worst, in its successes and its failures, can be studied most fruitfully in these states. In India, at the present day it is admitted on all hands that education is facing a crisis. One epoch is closing and another is about to open. The education doled out to Indians under British auspices, has worked out its aims. Introducing his excellent book on "The Education of India" Mr. Mayhew says (page 3): "It is not hard to justify an attempt to summarize the aims, methods and results of British educational policy in India. A definite period of responsibility was closed in 1920, when the educational future of India was entrusted under the Reforms Act, to provincial ministers responsible to representative legislative councils." The change is not merely in the agency of education: it is also to be in aims, methods and scope. This is the place, therefore, to review the aims and achievements of the old British Indian system, with a view to obtaining its lessons for the new.

Mr. Mayhew sees three main aims in the British Indian system of education (op.cit.p.2). Firstly, it was designed to train Hindus and Muhommadans to assist in the administration of the country; secondly to secure the cooperation of the Indians themselves in the suppression of the moral and social evils attributed to superstitious ignorance; and thirdly, to provide for the increase in the

1. Report, Vol. I, p. 382.

material resources and prosperity of the country. Whether these aims have realised themselves or not, they have laid the foundations of the problems of Indian education at the present day.

The aim of securing a great number of capable administrators and officers, has succeeded beyond all dreams. In 1832 the Reformed House of Commons passed a decree opening all offices and positions to any Indian with the necessary qualification and ability, and English education was expected to produce a hierarchy of capable Indian officials which should ultimately diminish the cost of the administration.[1] The Governor-General, Lord William Bentinck was making up his mind to abolish Persian as the language of the courts and the higher offices and to replace it with English in the higher spheres and the vernacular in the lower. Such were some of the reasons that weighed with the government in introducing English education in India. Such were the reasons that prompted a large number of Indian youths to take avidly to western education. Lord Hardinge's Resolution of 1844 enjoined the selection for Government service of men who had received an English education. This resolution gave to English education a value in terms of livelihood.[2] The Despatch of 1854 reemphasized this decision. Till then only family and influence had counted to secure Government employment. Now all who were educated were eligible for selection. So there was a rush into the English schools—mostly of middle class people. To equalize opportunities for all, scholarships and free places were reserved for those of the backward communities. Thus all were induced to join the English schools. The period was one of rapid expansion in administration, industry and commerce. The British Government was not only adding new territories but adding to its functions. The period was also marked by the introduction of railways, and the foundation of

1. Mayhew : The Education of India-p. 13.
2. James : Education and Statesmanship in India-p. 3.

industrial and commercial firms. The products of English education were rapidly absorbed. The university degree had become the accepted object of ambition, the passport to distinction in the public services and the learned professions.[1] But a day of reckoning was soon to come. The expansion of secondary and collegiate education that we have noticed above, brought into the market many more than could easily be absorbed in commercial or official positions. Fourteen thousand men are annually thrown out on the labour market which cannot absorb half their number. In Madras a trial advertisement for a clerk on Rs. 35 ($12·75) per mensem brought six hundred answers.[2]

In 1904, 2430 candidates presented themselves for the intermediate examination of the University of Madras, 457 for that of Bombay, and 3832 for that of Calcutta. In 1917, the figures were 5,424 for Madras, 1281 for Bombay, and no fewer than 8020 for Calcutta. Both Bengal and the United Kingdom have almost the same population-fortyfive millions-and they produce the same number of students preparing for university degrees, viz. 26,000. But since in Bengal only about one in ten can read and write, the proportion of the educated classes of Bengal who are taking full time university courses is almost ten times as great as in the United Kingdom.[3] A very much smaller proportion than in the United Kingdom go to the University for what is ordinarily described as vocational training. The great majority—22,000 out of 26,000—pursue purely literary courses which do not fit them for any but administrative, clerical, teaching and legal careers. The number of places in these walks of life has not grown as fast as the number of university graduates. The result has been nationwide unemployment among educated persons.

This middle class or educated unemployment has been most acute in Travancore where the literary education has

1. C. U. C. R. Vol. I, Chap. 3.
2. Garrat-An Indian Commentary-page 82.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. I, Chap II.

advanced farthest. As in the other provinces of India, in Travancore also a committee was appointed to enquire into the nature and extent of unemployment and to suggest remedies. The committee reported its findings in April 1928. Its investigations revealed an alarming state of misery among western educated youths. There were seventy-five per cent more graduating from English High Schools than are required by employing agencies; sixty per cent more out of "Vernacular Schools" than are required. Between 1901 and 1911, the number of lawyers in Travancore increased 66·6 per cent and in the decade 1911-1921 by 75 per cent while the litigation has increased since 1922 by only 12 per cent. Among educated women, about 60 per cent remained unemployed. The committee came to the considered opinion that while in the adjoining province of Madras, the proportion of educated men seeking employment to the demand was roughly two to one, in Travancore it was three to one[1]. This state of affairs is traced to the kind of education offered to the Indian youth. The Travancore Unemployment Committee says in its report (p. 32). "The British Indian system of education, which our own system resembles closely in essentials, has been pronounced to be the worst educational system in the world. This is probably true and it is true mainly because it is, if we are not mistaken, the cheapest in the world, cheapest for the Government, for private managing bodies, and for the individual who receives the education." There is no doubt that the British Indian system of education has sinned by acts both of commission and of omission. As Mr. Patrick Geddes pointed out to the Calcutta University Commission[2] "on present lines, we inhibit and spoil more minds than we educate." Sir Philip Hartog deposed to the same effect before the Bengal Unemployment Enquiry Committee, "I regard the education given now in the majority of places of secondary and higher education in Bengal, as tending to

1. Travancore Unemployment Committee's Report, Chap. 2.
2. Report, Vol I, p. 210.

diminish the intellectual energy of those who receive it. It is sterilising, I think, that the education as at present imparted is in many cases a positive disadvantage to those who receive it and tends to render the students more worthless in the market than if they had worked by themselves."[1]

These strictures, no doubt, are quite well deserved. The system pandered rather to the weaknesses of the race which it offered to educate than to eradicate them. Tagore says, "No system could have been more successfully devised for the intellectual emasculation of a race than this introduction of western literature and philosophy to the Indian mind whose natural bent became philosophical through the pursuit of literary and dialectic studies for ages."[2] It was inevitable that a people whose traditional systems of learning were almost exclusively literary and religious in character—as were those of the Muhommedans and the Hindus alike—should tend to concentrate upon purely literary studies.

The evils of the system were exaggerated by the particular type of university which was set up. The affiliating university which came into existence in 1857 was little more than an examining board.[3] Calcutta was *par excellence* the affiliating university. The 26,000 students of the United Kingdom are divided among eighteen universities; the 26,000 students in Bengal are brought under the mechanism of a single university, follow in each subject the same courses of study, read the same books and undergo the same examinations. The University of Calcutta, in respect of the number of its students, is the largest university in the world[4] and was perforce compelled to use mass methods of instruction—the all too unsatisfactory lecture and examination systems.

1. Travancore Unemployment Committee's Report, pp. 33-34.
2. Quoted in Cornelius. Tagore, India's Schoolmaster, p. 247.
3. Ronaldshay-Heart of Aryavarta, p. 22.
4. C. U. C. R. Vol. I, p. 21.

The affiliating type of university purveyed collegiate education to a wide area through colleges located in different parts of the country but affiliated to a central university which hardly did anything more than prescribe courses and examine students prepared by the constituent colleges. It brought instruction to the doorstep of a people who would otherwise have been unable to go after it to a distant place, but at the same time, it robbed the student of the character forming agencies which abound in the atmosphere of a unitary residential and teaching university. By exalting the examination, it exalted the memory at the expense of thinking. The use of a foreign medium of English helped in this process. "The Indian of today is the descendant of a people who evolved a vast mnemonic literature—whose scriptures were not committed to writing but stored in the chambers of the mind and handed down orally from one generation to another. He has inherited, consequently, an extreme facility for memorizing, and it is scarcely to be wondered at that the Indian boy, who from the age of twelve onwards is expected to acquire all that he has to learn through the medium of English, should fall back instinctively upon his undeniable powers of memory to carry him through his formidable task."[1]

The Indian educational system both by organization, inclination and intent glorifying memory[2] at the expense of thinking, sapping all initiative by authoritarian instruction, left the Indian youth dependent, unable to take heart of grace and act in an emergency. When once the doors of the public offices became blocked with importunate applicants, he found it hard to turn his hand to anything else and remained unemployable. The aim of the East India Company to train clerks had succeeded only too well. It turned out a clerk and nothing but a clerk, and made India a nation of quill drivers. As Lord Ronaldshay points out, the most

1. Ronaldshay-Heart of Aryavarta p. 10.
2. Whitehead-India's Problems, p. 138.

conspicuous achievement of English education in India "had been the production of vast numbers of persons on the model of the English city clerk—so far at any rate, as intellectual equipment and development are concerned."[1] When education failed to lead to remunerative employment and large numbers of educated youth remained unemployed, the educational system was blamed and a loud outcry arose for a complete overhauling.

The social aim of English education in India has had a very checkered career. The movement to introduce western learning and culture to the Indian came through two conflicting forces. A school of social reformers in India, at whose head was Ram Mohun Roy, joined with the secularist philanthropist David Hare, in establishing a college where western learning was to be imparted to eastern youths, for the expulsion of those features of Hindu life and letters which had roused their moral indignation.[2] Ram Mohun Roy had left his father's house rather than countenance such abominations as *Sati*, had sought occupation in European circles, and had earned by his virtue and industry leisure and means to fight with European weapons the dragon of superstition and prejudice that was devastating his land.[3] Meanwhile a devoted band of missionaries, among whom were such distinguished names as Carey, Marshman, Ward and Duff, was beginning to establish schools and colleges on western lines in the hope that western learning would most effectively prepare the way for Christian work in India.[4] The most decisive factor, however, was the forceful personality of Lord Macaulay. The "Clapham School" had brought a new humanitarian spirit into British Imperialism. Among its members were Wilberforce and Zachary Macaulay, who fought so well against the slave trade. When the charter of the East India Company came before Parliament for renewal in

1. Ronaldshay-op. cit, p. 9.
2. Mayhew-The Education of India-page 12.
3. Farquhar-Modern Religious Movements in India.
4. Paton-Alexander Duff, Chap. 4.

1813, they insisted on inserting a clause by which a sum of one lakh of rupees was required to be spent by the Company for the education of the natives. The Charter also proposed the appointment of a legal member to the Governor-General's Council. Lord Macaulay was sent out to fill this place and as a distinguished man of letters he was also made Chairman of the Committee of Public Instruction in whose hands was vested the power of spending the educational grant. The question arose as to whether the grant was to be spent on Oriental or Western education. The controversy had reached an acute stage even before Macaulay arrived in the country. The educationists of the country were lined up either with the Anglicists or the Orientalists. Macaulay threw the weight of his authority on the side of the Anglicists, and his famous Minute of 1835 decided for English education as the best under the circumstances for India. Macaulay argued the point with his usual trenchancy and though some of his reflections on Indian literature and Eastern civilization have hurt Indian feelings, we may credit him with having had good intentions. He said, "No Hindu who has received an English education ever remains sincerely attached to his religion. It is my firm belief that if our plans of education were followed up, there will not be a single idolator among the respectable classes in Bengal thirty years hence. And this will be effected without any effort to proselytise, without the smallest interference in their religious liberty; merely by the natural operation of knowledge and reflection."[1] He aimed at training up a class of persons "Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect."[2]

For a while this aim appeared to be within realization. By the middle of the nineteenth century westernism had become the fashion of the day. "The more ardent their admiration of everything western, the more vehement became their denunciation of everything eastern. The

1. Trevelyan-Macaulay Vol. II p. 455.
2. Minute of 1835-Sharp Eductional Records Pt. I, p. 116.

ancient learning, custom, law and religion were derided as mere superstition."[1] A wave of irreligion and denationalization passed over the country. From this disaster it was saved by the life and teachings of great men like Ram Mohun Roy and Keshab Chandra Sen who, while worshipping the greatness of western civilization, remained true Indians, and believed in a synthesis of the best elements of the east and the west, rather than in a substitution of western culture for eastern culture. Up to 1880 or beyond. Indians prided themselves on out-Macaulaying Macaulay, "In the period 1860-1880, there was a great wave in Bengal of imitation of all things European, and an enthusiastic adoption of the English language. This movement has been succeeded by a tendency in the opposite direction, a revival of the distrust of western influence."[2] Under the influence of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa, Swami Vivekananda and Dwendranath Tagore, the drift from westernism which had started with Sen became marked.[3] The attempt to substitute western for eastern culture, has at the present day roused the pugnacity of the east and produced hatred for the west. Western culture, instead of driving out its eastern rival, has indirectly fostered a belief in that rival's merits and a determination to make good its claims before the world. The moral superiority of Europe is widely questioned and by many denied, and those who like Mahatma Gandhi urge complete liberation from its "satanic" influence receive respectful and sympathetic attention.[4] Indian opinion has thus moved away from the suitablity of western culture for India's peoples, and hopes to create a new Indian culture of its own, profiting by the lessons of the west. But the

1. Ronaldshay-Heart of Aryavarta, Chap V; Majumdar: Introduction to the Life and Teachings of Keshab Chandra Sen, and Tagore's Gora.
2. West-Bilingualism, p. 34; Mukerji-Disillusioned India, p. 208; Kohn-op. cit.Chap. IV.
3. Romain Rolland-Prophets of the New India, Chap. 6.
4. Mayhew-Op. Cit. p. 22.

educational system of India still adheres to the exploded belief and without contributing anything to the new culture, succeeds only in estranging the people from their racial heritage.[1]

The attempt at renationalization through education in an alien language has been proved to be a fallacy elsewhere. It arose in the nineteenth century in the Herbartian psychology which looked upon the child as so much clay in the teacher's hands to be shaped into whatever form the teacher wished him to take. The Britisher in India wished to make the Indian in his own image by educating him in English culture through the English language. This has led to disastrous results. In the mouths of the extremists it has led to an outburst against all western education so that in 1921-22 under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi the students deserted the English schools *en masse* for newly formed, ill-equipped national schools. Even in the opinion of such men as Tagore, this is a futile task. It is hopeless to endeavor to fashion "the history of one people on the model of another however flourishing the latter may be .....For India to force herself along European lines of growth would not make her Europe but only a distorted India"[2] (Message of the Forest). The mother tongue cannot be displaced because it has not merely a symbolic but an evocative function. It has a distinct form of expression of its own, based on a different analysis of experience and a difference in experience itself. Language expresses our environment both physical, social and cultural, and as environments differ so do languages. The mother tongue expressing the early environment of the child with emotional accompaniment, creates a powerful complex in the mind. After fifty years of stay in America and constant use of English, the mother tongue is not forgotten and comes up in the end in cases of illness.[3] If the mother tongue cannot

1. West-Op. Cit. pp. 47-50.
2. Ramsay MacDonald-Government of India-pp. 165-169.
3. Betts-The Mind and its education p. 7.

be replaced by English in the American environment, much less can it be in India.

"If education is to be fully effective, it must be national in tone and character. Man does not live to himself alone, but in the wellbeing of the community to which he belongs by birth, locality and inheritance. Education must be so imparted that the pupils may become the best possible members of their community. The cord uniting the individual and the national community must be strengthened. The customary system of education in India works in the opposite direction. It denationalizes." [1]

In another respect western education in India has signally failed in its aims. One of the reasons why Macaulay advocated the English medium was the paucity of vernacular literature in quality and quantity. He said [2] that a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia. He judged that the poetry of Sanskrit and Arabic—the classical languages of India—was inferior to that of the European nations. The inferiority became, he said, more marked when we passed from imaginative to realistic literature. In the matter of history and science, he held, that the oriental languages were very defective. "How then stands the case?" he asks. "We have to educate a people who cannot at present be educated by means of their mother tongue." [3] He believed that by educating a select class in western science and literature he would be creating an agency which would refine the vernacular dialects of the country, enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the western nomenclature and render them by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population. This was known as the filtration theory and the results have proved that it has not worked.

1. Kohn—History of Nationalism in the East—p. 65.
2. Sharp—*Op. Cit.* p. 109.
3. Ibid—p. 110.

The hope that by furnishing European materials and models the formation of a national literature will be ensured has not been fulfilled. From minds saturated with English knowledge and tastes formed by the study of English masterpieces, textbooks, tracts and literature, have not issued as expected. The translations of European works of merit and the production of original compositions by men imbued with European literature and science have not been many. A Bengalee witness before the Calcutta University Commission says[1] "A hundred years of English teaching have not produced a notable publication embodying the assimilated western wisdom." On the other hand, just as in English literature, Italian and French had a stimulating effect, so that their influence on Chaucer or the Elizabethan or Victorian literature cannot be disentangled, English had a stimulating effect on the Bengali and Hindi. The growth in Vernacular literature has been distinctly marked in those provinces where English education has advanced farthest. It is English education that produced Bankim Chatterji and Tagore. There is no distinguished Bengali writer who is ignorant of English. But English has produced this result indirectly and perversely by arousing a national feeling of reaction against exotic culture. Stimulated undoubtedly by foreign influence, Bengalee has gone for direct inspiration to national life and aspiration.[2] The problem of a sound vernacular literature therefore still remains unsolved.

The famous Wood dispatch of 1854 said "It has been necessary, owing to the want of translations or adaptations of European works in the Vernacular languages of India and to the very imperfect shape in which European knowledge is to be found in the learned languages of the East, for those who begin by the mastery of the English language as the key to the literature of Europe, a knowledge of English will be necessary. But it is neither our aim nor our desire to substitute the English language for the

1. Report, Vol 2, Chap. 18.
2. Ronaldshay—*Op. Cit.* Chap. 3.

Vernacular dialects of the country." In the upshot, however, the contingency expressly denied in the above excerpt has come about in real life. English has become the medium of instruction in every stage above the elementary grade and has for generations exercised a killing effect on the growing minds of Indian children. It has shut out of education the large numbers of children who have no talent for studying languages.[1] "The boys are overstrained. They do not understand English sufficiently to follow their instruction in History, Geography, Science and the like; it is a constant strain on their minds and they lose the faculty of biting ideas and connecting words with facts."[2] "The student at present learns words[3] rather than things and shows it by a peculiarly vague understanding due to an unreasoning slavery to ill understood words." Therefore it handicaps true education and even destroys individuality.[4] "We may roughly divide our work in life into two categories, work in which we have to follow a model and act like other people, and work in which we have to think and act for ourselves and of which the value consists in our individuality. But such individuality can only make itself evident and effective, whether in the region of thought or of plastic art, or of handwork, when some mastery of the medium of expression has been attained. The child begins the mastery of the mother tongue from infancy. It is the medium in which technical mastery is first achieved; it is the medium in which individuality can first show itself and be nursed to strength.[5] Therefore it is argued that to postpone the study of English to a later stage until a better grasp of the mother tongue is achieved, will so improve the skill of the pupil that he will learn even English more efficiently. This is the view of Sir A. Croft who says in his review of Indian

1. Tagore—The Message of the Forest.
2. Gazette of India March 17, 1915.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. II, p. 246-7.
4. Whitehead-Indian Problems, Chap. 10.
5. C. U. C. R. Vol. II, p. 30.

Education of 1886 (pp. 167—171). "The reason why a study of English should be postponed to a later stage is the same reason why the study of Greek in English schools should be so postponed. The boy will have made such a good acquaintance of the Vernacular as would promote a more intelligent study of English." As Gandhi says "A scientific knowledge of one language makes a knowledge of other languages comparatively easy." [1] To support this contention the German example is pointed out. The Indian boy often devotes as much time as twenty-six hours a week to the study of English in the last two years of his school life, a greater portion of time than is allotted to any single subject in any secondary system in any country with which we are acquainted. [2] With all that, his command of English is not so good as the German student's who devotes fewer periods to it but who studies it as a language. [3] The argument that a polyglot child is more intelligent than a monoglot child has not received support from the experiments conducted by Dr. Sauer in Wales. [4] On the other hand empirical observation in India has lent its support to quite the contrary view. "I can only tell you that in my own experience and in the experience of many competent educationalists with whom I have discussed the question, there is a markedly greater intelligence in the boy whose education has been conducted through the medium of the vernacular until the highest classes of the school are reached, than in the boy who has had his education conducted in English in the upper middle school." [5]

The idea that a few well to do people of good family, alone will enter the English schools and later spread their knowledge among the masses through the vernacular proved to be a fallacy which arose out of faulty analogies with

1. Gandhi-Autobiography, p. 53.
2. Ronaldshay-*Op. Cit.* p. 11.
3. Nelson Fraser-Furlough Studies, p. 59.
4. Imperial Education Conference Report, p. 184.
5. Sir H. Butler Gazette of India, March 17, 1915, page 216.

English conditions. "The men of 1835 seem to have envisaged Indian squire and parson returning from his university career to open village schools, tract depots and lecture halls. The Indian landholder or temple priest did not readily take to English education. Those who did, used it for their own purposes and the new speech and culture estranged them from the masses, until hatred of English civilization made them warn the ignorant against English education." [1] English education has created a new caste of English educated people and estranged them from the masses. The problem of mass education therefore still remains "An educated class has been created which lives its own separate life without being able to influence the uneducated masses or be influenced by them; such a class has nowhere been seen before."[2]

There is noticeable also a marked drift from the village to the city. This is believed to be part of the evils of western education. "It is no use giving the children an education that will fit them to make their way in the towns, but is useless for them in the villages."[3] The English educated youth finds it very hard to go back to his village. This tendency has been noticed in the case of teachers and doctors who would rather take an underpaid job in an urban centre than go and work among the villages. The explanation of this lies in the kind of taste which the college educated youth develops. He hankers after the sights and shows of the town, and the pleasures of the city lure him from the quiet joys of the countryside.

The western system of education has also estranged man from women.[4] Women's education has not proceeded as rapidly as men's. For social and religious reasons, woman in India has lagged behind man in education. Purdah prevented her going to school, and early marriage unduly

1. Mayhew, *Op.Cit.* page 92.
2. Kohn-*Op. Cit.* p. 66.
3. Whitehead-Indian Problems, p. 153.
4. Ibid-p. 143.

curtailed her education. The early attempts on the part of the British Government in this direction raised the cry of "home in danger." The 1921 census figures show that only two women in one hundred of over five years of age can read and write.[1] The result is that there is a deep gulf between the mental outlook and interests of the husband and wife. Many English educated young men fear the danger of destruction of the happiness of married life and of estrangement, when husband and wife live on two very different planes of culture.[2] Therefore there is need for a closer intellectual companionship between husband and wife through a more well thought out system of education.

The result is that the conflicting cultures offered through western education has produced a conflict in the educated Indian. The educated Indian youth feels the pull of two loyalties—the loyalty to the old order and the loyalty to the new. This paralyzing inner conflict has made for growth but the travails have been great. Sir M. Sadler says: "It is through the contact between Indian culture and that of the outer world and especially the culture of Europe and the west, that painful dilemmas are created in the mind of the thoughtful student of Bengal. He feels the eddying current of western thought, which is forcing its way, in some degree unseen, into the quiet waters of his traditional life. The current brings with it an unfamiliar, but vigorous and agitating literature. His own instinctive yearnings for social reform, for intellectual enlightenment and moral certainty make him eager for fresh truth. And behind this new foreign literature and philosophy—there stands the great authority of colossal power. Power evinced in political achievement, in religious conviction, in the worldwide ramifications of commerce, in stupendous industrialism, in the startling triumphs of applied science, in unmeasurable resources of wealth." [3]

1. Mayhew, *Op. Cit.* Chap IX.
2. C. U. C. R. Vol. I, p. 137.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. I, p. 122.

The social defects of western education have not been so glaring in Kerala. The presence of a large Christian population has somewhat absorbed the shock of the prevailing Christian tone of western culture. The presence of a hardy and vigorous vernacular language has toned down the asperities of the linguistic conflict.[1] The existence of a popular native dynasty of kings has drawn the teeth of political partisanship from western culture. Hence western education has been the greatest force of social import in this part of India. Since education is widespread, its effects have been universal. The Queen's proclamation, which we have quoted above, may be said to formulate the aims for Travancore education. It gives first rank to the spread of enlightenment. Enlightenment was to remove backwardness from the people and this has happened in the case of large sections of the population. Each class has its own reforming movement and with the help of the popular institutions granted by the kings, has effected its passage from an archaic to a modern type of civilization. With all that, we cannot help thinking that here as elsewhere in India, more may have been accomplished, if instead of merely purveying information and hoping word magic would do the rest in breaking down effete beliefs, education had gone deeper down into human nature and attacked the frame of mind which allowed conduct to be ruled by belief rather than by knowledge, and took on a pessimistic, fatalistic and backward outlook of dependence instead of an optimistic cheerful for ward looking belief in its own strength. As Sir M. Viswesaraya says: "The people themselves are, as a rule, passive and unaggressive. They are guided rather by the opinion of the caste or community than by a common national standard of life, thought and work, by centuries old traditions and superstitions rather than by the collective experience of the modern world. The general outlook upon life in India, as things are now, is too gloomy to permit sound individual or social development. Far too common is the belief that

1. Travancore University Committee Report, p. 316.

life is merely a transitory stage in the passage of the soul to another world. That notion chills enthusiasm, kills joy, and promotes fatalism. The enervating climate and lack of proper nourishment react upon the nerves and accentuate the pessimistic tendency." [1]

An educational system that will ferret out each superstion and strike it down by the appropriate piece of knowledge must be laborious and wasteful. True, that one who learns about the natural causation of eclipses will not behave as if he still believed in its mythical explanation and try to scare away the demons that were swallowing the heavenly body in eclipse by beating the ground with plantain bark. But a more effective method will be to create the mind that does not admit such beliefs and to destroy its conservative set up

Dr. Dewey finds the origin and growth of the conservative mind in empirical thinking. Untested and unverified explanations harden into beliefs and grow into traditions and sit like an incubus on men's mind blocking all inquiry and hindering all progress. Successive generations accepting these on authority with unquestioning obedience are led in thraldom to the past. From this slavery, the mind is freed by scientific or critical thinking, which by bringing these beliefs to the test of proof, starts inquiry, reaches valid conclusions, contributes to human welfare, and breeds a confidence in human powers which lead to hopes for the future.[2] We can illustrate the truth of these contentions by taking the case of the belief that potatoes thrive well when planted with the crescent moon. Such an opinion accepted unquestioningly is passed down the generations in the form of a belief, and influences the conduct of individuals. But supposing someone doubts its truth and wishes to examine its validity. He starts an experiment. Perhaps he discovers that there is no apparent connection. The way is now open to discover what really determines the growth of potatoes and the miracles of agricultural science are revealed.

1. Visvesaraya–Reconstructing India p. 237.
2. Dewey-How We Think-Chap. 5.

Having been of effect in the natural order of events, man acquires new confidence in himself. He does not feel that he is a mere cog in the wheel of a fixed universe. He takes his eyes from the past and looks hopefully toward the future. Such an attitude is not created by an authoritarian education emphasizing memory, but by a free education that stresses critical thinking.

If education should adjust the individual to the society in which he is to live, there was no time in the history of Kerala when a new kind of education was needed to suit the changing times. Old familiar landscapes are retreating, reliable signposts lead astray. The submerged tenth is rearing its head, the masses of the people are becoming politically conscious. Women's lot is gradually changing, social institutions are being readapted. In Travancore the Joint Family System is breaking down, and individual ownership is taking its place. No longer can one batten on the common property. He is on his own and must get on or get under. The old economic organization is gradually passing away. Neither agriculture nor the village is the mainstay of the people any longer. Industries are springing up, commerce has come into its own, an urban population is growing up. The centralized despotic government is yielding place to popular institutions based on free election. "Every Indian community had a specific place in the life of the nation and ancient Indian education was devised to fit the individual to be a member of the community so situated. The trouble now is that the place of the Indian community in the world is no longer what it was, whereas the social education of the Indian is still the same as it was when the effective environment of the community was very different. The community having changed its place in the world, the education of the members has also to change. It is a new content that we have to devise." [1]

Perhaps it is not so much a new content as a new ideal that is needed. With the times changing so rapidly,

1. K. T. Paul—Adult Education p. 3.

and the pattern of life never remaining constant, education should not aim so much at importing content into the pupil as aim at the production of an individual who will be able to think constructively and to adjust himself to new and changing situations.[1] Commenting on the suitability of Mr. McKee's methods for India, Dr. Kilpatrick says: "The question cuts deep into the complexities of the Indian situation and can never be answered in the right way till the school system accustomed the boy, from earliest childhood onward, to join his thinking and his book learning with actual doing, hand and otherwise of a kind that enters immediately into Indian life and culture. This Mr. McKee's plan undertakes to do. On no other basis, it would seem, can we reasonably hope to get the needed flexibility of concrete thinking, the indispensable working belief in the superiority of causation over Karma, and the practical willingness to attack actual problems in a common-sense way. One shudders to think of the misery in store for the villages who cannot psychologically make the shift from an old and merely traditional civilization to the moving and changing civilization of modern industry."[2]

The British have not made much headway with the aim of developing the material resources of the country through their system of education. Perhaps this aim came rather late in point of time. We find the famous despatch of Sir Charles Wood of 1854 saying that the aim of the British Government was to "teach the natives of India the marvellous results of the employment of labour and capital, rouse them to emulate us in the development of the vast resources of their country, and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce." In order to realize this aim, education should have turned the current of youth into industrial and commercial channels and

1. Kilpatrick—Education for a changing civilisation.
2 Kilpatrick in McKee's New Schools for Young India Introduction p. IX.

promoted the spread of knowledge, of science and of technology. It should have upheld the dignity of labour. The exact reverse of these, however, has happened. Partly because of the rush to the liberal professions, industry and commerce were neglected. Nay, they were even looked upon as socially inferior occupations, which was only to be expected in a country which from immemorial times had extolled the soft-handed jobs and looked down upon manual labour.

The desire to spread enlightenment again worked against this aim. To enable the backward and depressed classes to share in this enlightenment special concessions were offered, with the result that many were enticed away from their hereditary occupations to pursue a literary education, in the hope of securing a government post, or of entering the dignified liberal professions. The drift from agriculture, the crafts and commerce, has thus become marked.[1] Indeed we may go so far as to say that India is offering a black-coat education to a shirt-sleeve population.

Here, once again a good method of education would have attempted to change the mentality of the people. Not only should the commercial and industrial careers be reinstated in the public esteem, but the type of mind which Mr. Graham Wallas calls "the pioneer mind"[2] should have been promoted. This is the American mind which interprets life in terms of doing rather than knowing; and faces the situations of everyday life in and of themselves, without considering their past or the future results. This is the type of mind that has explored, charted and settled a whole continent, cutting down jungles, bridging rivers, crossing mountains, subduing a wild country, making it the fit soil for a great civilization. Such a mind is wanted in India not merely to exploit nature but also to correct inherited inclination. The Easterner is not dynamic and empirical like the American, but passive and speculative. He is given

1. Travancore Unemployment Committee Report, Chap. 3, p. 24.
2. Art of Thought p. 188 ff.

to "annihilate all that is made, to a green thought under a green shade." The Indian's speculative mind even now looks upon life as given to know the truth about eternity and this ardent quest has left him poor in this world's goods. The literary education with its knowledge ideal has pandered to this weakness. We have now a new conception of mind as a consequence of the wide acceptance of the principles of evolution. As William James puts it, "our minds are given to do rather than to know." "Our sensations are here to attract us or to deter us, our memories to warn or to encourage us, our feelings to impel and our thoughts to restrain our behaviour, so that on the whole we may prosper in the land." [1]

It is surprising to note how educational principles may be twisted so as to suit the prevailing type of mind. Manual training, which would have corrected the one-sided nature of Indian education by developing habits of thinking in definite, practical, tangible terms of doing and given the mind the control of the hand as a vital instrument for realizing its purposes[2], has surely been misunderstood when spinning was introduced in Indian schools as a species of "Manual Training." We have nothing to say against its content value ; but its supposedly educative value is opposed to the principles of Manual Training, for according to Mahatma Gandhi, the spinning wheel is *par excellence*, the agent for producing the calm atmosphere for contemplation.

The need for exploiting the resources of nature are nowhere greater than in Travancore and Cochin. The density of population per square mile of total area is 577 ; on total cultivable area 950; on occupied area 1225; on cultivated area 1611. These figures are the highest in India with the possible exception of Bengal.[3] The introduction of the cheap tapioca as a food material has lowered the standard

1. William James—Talks to Teachers p. 24.
2. Jones—Principles of Education p. 93 Ballard:—Handwork as an Educational Medium.
3. Travancore Unemployment Committee Report, p. 41.

of comfort and multiplied the population until at last the saturation point has been reached. Until now European capital had developed the resources of the country, chiefly through rubber and tea estates in the uplands. The rising tide of nationalism is making the investment of foreign capital a matter of difficulty. Indian capital and enterprise are already in the field; but more of them will be needed in the near future. Education should therefore devise means of turning the thoughts of the younger generation in this direction and of equipping them for the national task of developing the country.

Finally, the educational organization of the country stands in need of change. At present the education of the country is largely in the hands of the Government. It is a department of State. This carries with it dead uniformity, officialdom and red-tapism. Instead of reflecting national aspirations, the schools have multiplied by their numbers the fiats of a bureaucratic government. The system is impersonal, lacking in color, warmth or significance. The teacher has hardly any freedom; and is never more than a hireling working for his wages. He has to follow cast-iron rules, make a good showing at the periodical inspections, produce creditable results in the examinations, and in general obey the letter of the law. In such a system personality can hardly ever come into play. Personal convictions, opinions, preferences, in religion, politics or social affairs are frowned upon and so have to be rigorously suppressed. "It is hard to imagine a Thring or Arnold or Sanderson thrown up by such a system. It will not produce a Sankara, Kabir or Tagore in India." [1]

Nothing could be more contrary to the Indian's conception of a teacher. India values personality in a teacher. The "*guru*" is a revered person and is subject to no external control. He teaches because it is his spiritual function or "dharma", not primarily as a means of livelihood. He is supported by gifts which in no way mean any kind of control. No more freedom can be desired for a teacher. The "*chela*"

1. Mayhew *Op. Cit.* p. 72.

or pupil reveres his "*guru*" and pays implicit obedience to him. The "*asram*" or school is usually a retreat in a forest, where in touch with nature and his revered mentor, the Indian boy prepared for the realities of life. The Anglo-Indian system incorporating teachers in the subordinate grade of its services, has robbed them of the prestige appeal. "India could revere a teacher who is unpaid, and prostrate itself, in the unreal and official world, before a highly paid educationalist, but a man who achieves but a poor rank and pay in the official hierarchy by his scholastic work leaves India perplexed and indifferent."[1]

The English educational system has for its goal "variety in a national framework" ;[2] the American ideal may be described as uniformity in a local frame work. The English system while giving wide scope for individual initiative, provides for the carrying out of national ends. The American system arising and ending in local initiative, by means of a large number of agencies official and otherwise peculiar unto itself, has been able to define and realize common aims.[3] The Indian system has been out of touch with the hopes and aspirations of the Indian people and has had the appearance of dragooning them in an alien culture. The Act of 1919 by transferring the control of education to popularly elected ministers has gone a great way towards making Indian education responsive to Indian public opinion. Perhaps greater and greater efficiency will come with more and more devolution to local authorities.

In India the nationalist demand for universal compulsory primary education has been again and again turned down on the plea of lack of funds. Such a contingency could not have been if education was in the people's hands as in the United States. "There is one feature about these village schools which deserves notice, in view of the difficulty

1. Mayhew-*Op. Cit.* p. 74.
2. Kandel-Essays in Comparative Education, p. 23.
3. Bagley-School and Society, Jan. 26,1929;
   Kandel-Essays in Comparative Education p. 59.

of extending education under the modern system on financial grounds, and that is the fact that they were managed and paid for by the people themselves."[1] Now the Indian gets the education he deserves, but if education were organized on a popular basis, he will get the education that he wants. "For the training of character a national system of education must be closely related to the history and life of a people. It is impossible to educate a nation in the true sense of the word by ignoring its traditions and leaving out of account its characteristic modes of thought and feeling. It was, therefore, far more likely that a good system of education would be ultimately evolved if the people were allowed and encouraged to manage and pay for their own schools, to make their own experiments and gradually adapt their educational methods to their own needs and ideas."[2]

Enough has been said to show that education stands to be remade in India. How to bring the people into touch with world progress, without either suppressing the vernaculars or estranging the masses from the classes, how to unify the culture of India and to make education subserve the end of adding to and transmitting the culture; how to build a firm national character which will root out inherited handicaps and make the Indian fight the good fight of civilization, how to promote peace among the peoples through education, how to secure a flexible organization responsive to popular needs, these remain some of the problems that face the Indian educationist.[3] Reduced to terms of practical import, these problems are concerned with the aim, content, methods and organization of education. This reorientation has to be done by the Indian himself. No longer is the Englishman to provide an Indian educational policy. He has done his best and he has gracefully made his bow out.

In such a critical educational situation, the teacher must be and always remain the central figure. As the

1. Whitehead-Indian Problems, p. 123.
2. Ibid. p. 128.
3. Cornelius: Tagore—India's Schoolmaster, p. 69.

Hartog Report observes, "Mere changes in curricula produce little result unless a corresponding change takes place in the attitude of the teacher and of the person who guides and supervises him."[1] Again it says, "The best point to break the vicious circle is undoubtedly the supply and training of teachers."[2]

It is freely admitted that the teachers are the makers of nations. "The renovation of nations begins always at the top" says William James[3] "among the reflective members of the state, and spreads slowly outward and downward. The teachers of this country, one may say, have the future in their hands." "The ultimate question is not how the populace is ruled, but what the teachers are to think. That is the question that has to be settled first, it is the perface to everything else"[4] As the Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14, puts it. "So far as the state can provide education, the teacher is the substance of it. The measure of our past and present deficiency is startlingly revealed by the manner in which we have persistently evaded this fact. Education has been much, and on the whole reverently, on our lips, but so little have we grasped its purport that the sole factor which can give it reality and meaning, namely the teacher, is grossly ill-equipped..... Genuine education..... can proceed only through immediate contact with keen minds fully informed, and pursuaded of what the rising generation may become, and dedicated to such achievement....."[5]

This consideration makes the institutions that prepare teachers of supreme importance in the national life of a country. The feasibility and practicability of training good teachers seem to hinge upon the problem as to whether the profession of teaching is akin to an art or to an applied science. Dr. Bagley holds that the great teacher is also a

1. Hartog Report, p 63.
2. Ibid, p. 77.
3. William James-Talks to Teachers, p. 3.
4. Lippmann-quoted in Nation, Nov. 8,1930.
5. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, pp. 8-9.

great artist. He makes his point tellingly, by comparing our conduct in the choice of a doctor and a teacher. If we were ill and had the option of choosing between Hippocrates and a young doctor just out of Johns Hopkins, we would without doubt choose the Johns Hopkins product. If on the other hand we were choosing a teacher for a young boy and were offered the option between Socrates and a young graduate of Teachers College, there is no doubt that we would plump whole and solid for Socrates. This is not merely because the science of healing has made great advances since Hippocrates, but because teaching is such an individual matter that, without each person grow into the fine way of teaching he can never hope to be a successful teacher by merely borrowing ready made rules of the teaching art from psychology. James put this truth in his own inimitable way[1] "Psychology is not something from which we can deduce definite programmes and methods of instruction for immediate classroom use, an intermediary inventive mind must make the application by using its originality." This would appear as if we are harking back to the old saying that teachers are born, not made—*nascitur non fit.* Not at all. It would mean that in the English conception. As Fitch puts it,[2] "A training college cannot give the insight into child nature, the living personality, the zeal, faithfulness and self consecration that go to form the ideal teacher." "The English are apt to look upon excellence achieved in any department of life as chiefly due to genius which they believe more or less to be the original and incommunicable part."[3] The French and the American are disposed to think that such excellences are due to factors which are in a great degree acquired and trained and so communicable. It is such beliefs that have prompted the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study which has analyzed the qualities that go to

1. James-Talks to Teachers p. 8.
2. Fitch-Lectures on Teaching I.
3. Matthew Arnold-Literary Influence of Academies.

make a good teacher and proposes consciously to create them in the teachers by means of training.

Finally though neither the psychology on which the art of teaching is based nor the applied aspect of it has attained respectable dimensions, it is too important to be neglected.[1] A training college can still call attention to the principles of teaching, to the methods of gifted teachers in the past, can accumulate rules and canons of the didactic art, can warn against mistakes, can analyze the cause of failures, and set a higher standard so that it may serve to turn a moderate teacher into a good one, a good one into a finished and accomplished artist and even those who are least qualified and are merely teachers "by the grace of God" into serviceable helpers.[2]

At the present juncture in India, when education stands to be remade, a training college will fill an important role. The new education in India is not to be made by an alien race. Power is falling into the hands of Indians. It is therefore necessary to create a generation that will think in terms of education. Until now the training colleges could not be said to have done this work well. The training given in them has been mostly of a perfunctory character. As Dr. M. Olcott says,[3] the training colleges of India "offer in a formal way much useful information, but they stimulate their students too little to become progressive educational thinkers and students in contact with the recent contributions of more advanced countries." The quotation from an official paper describes the plight of teacher training in India more or less correctly; "What is learned at the Training College often remains theoretical and unassimilated and regarded merely as necessary for a degree which has a commerical value and not as having any direct bearing on the daily routine of the teacher's task.[4]

1. Freeman-Journal of Educational Method-May 1930.
2. Laurie-Training of Teachers, Lect.3: Fitch-Lectures on Teaching Lect. 1.
3. Olcott-Village Schools in India; p. 133,
4. Ziauddin Ahmad-Systems of Education, p. 275.

The moment is auspicious for a new departure. The white heat of nationalism is drawing into the schools men as teachers who cannot any longer be spoken of "as the rejects of other professions"[1], who have not entered the profession as a means of earning their livelihood. They seem to have come dedicated to their task and take it seriously. With such material we may work wonders.

First and foremost, the Training College may serve to diffuse knowledge of educational advancement abroad. That the European element has decreased and the Indian element increased in Indian education is all the greater reason why contact with the rest of the world must be maintained. Teachers College of Columbia University, which Sir Michael Sadler called "by far the greatest center for the study of educational method and philosophy in both hemispheres"[2], might well serve us as a model. Not only does its faculty include the widest diversity of educational opinion, but by a system of visiting professors, distinguished men in other parts of the country professing widely varying doctrines are brought to its doors. Through its International Institute, not only are systems of education in other countries studied, but distinguished educationists of other lands are brought over to give currency to their views. Indian education should therefore place itself *en rapport* with educational opinion abroad through its training colleges.

This is specially required in methods of teacher training. Training Colleges do not have a long history behind them. In their present form they came up with the Elementary Education Act of England. Therefore the few precedents that we have are of great value. The experiences of England, France, Germany and the United States must be of great guidance value to India. The American experience is of great importance. The vast expanse of the United States, and the rapid spread of education within its

1. C. U. C. R., Vol. I, p. 211.
2. Teachers College Record, Oct. 1930.

borders have led to the emergence of a large number of training institutions. In 1920 there were 46 teachers colleges; in 1922, 80; in 1924,—88; in 1926-101. There were 400 training institutions of all kinds in 1928 besides university schools of education.[1] The American educator's command over wealth, his desire for standardization and his penchant for experimentation have brought forth many principles and practices of teacher training, that few countries can do without. The United States is, in reality in education, as in all other social activities, a vast laboratory, a fact already noted some thirty years ago by a great English educator Sir Joshua Fitch.[2]

Again an Indian teachers college can spread the results of experiments conducted within India itself to solve educational problems. Rabindranath Tagore has spent his time and fortune in developing an educational system which will keep Indians at peace with their own past and special culture without antagonizing either the cosmopolitan spirit or the spirit of the common people. His educational philosophy as well as the methods which he adopted in his own school merit greater publicity among Indian teachers.[3] It is an attempt to revive the spirit of the old Forest Sages of India and as such has commanded the respect of the world. The Aryasamaj has experimented in the same direction and has given forth two colleges. One very radical and puristic Hindu attempt goes to the same source for inspiration as Tagore's school, without at the same time attempting to reconcile it to world culture. It is the *Gurukula* at Hardwar and is a revival of the ancient practice of *Brahmachariya*. Modelled on the ancient Indian universities, it chose its habitation, a forest located in a scene of serene beauty where the boy of eight is taken away from family and home and made to live with his teachers until he is sixteen, studying the ancient lore of the Indians

1. U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 25, 1228, Chap.22.
2. Kandel-Essays in Comparative Education, p. 61.
3. See-Tagore Personality-Pearson-Shantiniketan.

along with English and other modern subjects.[1] The other institution conducted by the Arya Samaj is the Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College at Lahore, where a national education is attempted which while introducing the young Indian to western culture will not at the same time denationalize him. In this institution eastern and western culture have almost an equal place.[2] There is also Gandhi's Asram at Sabarmati with ideals that should certainly dictate the future Indian education.[3] Then there are the two sectarian universities—the Hindu University at Benares and the Muslim University at Aligarh. The missionary reaction to the demand for a more practical education which will arise out of the everyday life and enrich it, has resulted in the application by Mr. McKee of the Project Method to village education.[4] His school has become a place of pilgrimage for the educational reformer in India. "The adaptation of educational programmes to the requirements of the people is being carried out in some degree in every sphere of missionary activity in village, middle, boarding and high schools, in teaching to read, in industrial, agricultural and medical work. But these experiments do not yield the fruit they ought to, for work done in one district is not well-known in another even though the conditions may be very similar. If the fruit of good work is to be reaped there must be some deliberate effort made to spread the knowledge and experience of each district over all."[5] A training college can do yeoman work by calling attention to these experiments and by leading teachers to study their basic foundations, aims and methods.

Again an Indian teachers college can itself become a place of experiment and research. The hot controversy which centered round the question whether English or the

1. Ronaldshay *Op. Cit.* Chap, 7.
2. Kohn-History of Nationalism in the East. p. 65 ff.
3. Autobiography, Chap. 3
4. McKee-New Schools for Young India.
5. Fraser *et al*-Village Education in India, p. 14.

Vernacular should become the medium of instruction in schools had led to experiments on their respective merits.[1] In the hands of Dr. Michael West, the whole position of English underwent re-examination and a new theory of the aims and methods of teaching English in India has been developed after the appropriate experiments.[2] A great deal more remains to be done. The selection of a suitable curriculum, the construction of appropriate tests, the reform of the examination system, are some of the most urgent. Mr. West, deposing before the Calcutta University Commission said[3] : "Down to the present time Indian Universities have not had the opportunity of organizing the resources for the systematic study of education. A new school of education may arise stimulated by the thought of the west, but founded upon a scientific study of Indian needs and conditions. Far reaching changes are apparently imminent, not least in the sphere of primary education, but very little has been done to prepare for these changes by systematic inquiry and experimentation. What is to be desired is that there should be a number of vigorous and independent centres of educational thought in India closely in touch with the scientific progress which is being made in the subject elsewhere, intimate with the special needs of India and well equipped with the means of practical experiment." The country which gave the Bell Monitorial system to the west[4] may yet contribute something worthwhile to the pedagogic lore of the world. The work of an Indian Teachers College therefore deserves study and investigation.

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1. C.U.C.R. Vol. II p 251.
2. See West-Bilingualism.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. V, pp. 73-74.
4. Letter of the Court of Directors quoted in Basu-Education in India under the E. I. Co. p. 10.

CHAPTER II.

Organization of Education in the Area.

A brief description of the educational organization of the country, will clarify the problems of teacher-training. Before the rescript of Queen Parvati Bai (1817) there was no organised education in the land. Each village community had its own school, organized and run by a hereditary teacher known as the Asan. He got the children of the village together, taught them the three R's and some astronomy. The astronomy was to enable them, when grown up, to calculate the time for domestic rituals, as well as to time agricultural operations. He subsisted on the fees voluntarily contributed by the pupils. Such schools exist even at the present day, in the midst of the more elaborate government school system. The reason why the Queen ordered education to be made a charge on the revenues of the State was because, owing to a number of calamities, the people had become too poor to pay even the little that was required to keep up the village schoolmaster, and because in the northern parts, which had been newly conquered, there were no such schools to begin with.[1] When the State took over the task of educating the children of the people and established schools for the purpose, the jurisdiction over such schools was entrusted to the revenue officers, who were ordered to appoint teachers, to pay them and to inspect and report on their work. Such was the early organization of vernacular education. The State continued its interest in vernacular education by giving liberal grants in aid of vernacular schools. In 1884, a Vernacular Text Book Committee was organized, and a separate department of vernacular education was created. It was decided that the State should thereafter take part in vernacular education, mainly through grants in aid of private agencies. With this object the controlling

1. Education Department Administration Report 1103 M. E., p. 1.

and inspecting staffs were improved in numbers, efficiency and status.

Meanwhile English education was securing a steady foothold in the land. European missionaries had begun to teach English in the schools, in the north at Kottayam, and in the south at Nagercoil as early as 1816. In Trivandrum, the capital, there was an English school called "Christian David School" as early as 1821 and it was to this school that Mr. John Roberts, who was in missionary education work, was appointed teacher. Him, the Ranee requested to be in the pay and under the auspices of the government, and to start the Rajah's Free School. Under his son and another European successor, this school continued to make splendid progress. The chief ministers of the State around this period were former students of the Presidency College of Madras, and were anxious to spread English education in the country. By the year 1836, four district schools had been started, one each in Kottar, Thuckalay, Kayamkulam and Chirayinkil. In 1864 there were about five hundred pupils in these schools, and in that year the first group of students was sent up for the matriculation examination of the University of Madras. It is not necessary for our purpose to describe how some of these schools, especially those maintained in the Mufussal by private agencies developed into colleges. The Church Mission School, started in 1816 at Kottayam, presented candidates for the matriculation in 1867 and developed into a second grade college in 1892. The London Missionary Society's school, begun at Nagercoil in 1819, presented candidates for the matriculation in 1875 and became a college in 1893. The Roman Catholic school at Changanacherry had a similar history. The education of girls, also, started under Christian Missionary auspices before the government came to take an active part in it. In 1863 the Zenana Mission started a girls' school in Trivandrum, and the Catholics opened the Convent High School in 1880. The Government English Girl's School started in 1864 prepared students for the

Matriculation examination in 1890 and ultimately became a college.[1]

In 1878 the English district schools, which had till then been under the supervision of the principal of the college at Trivandrum, were placed under a whole time inspector of schools. In 1888 the system of grants-in-aid was extended to private English schools. This led to a corresponding increase in the number of new English schools. While there were only five aided English schools in 1890, their numbers rose to twenty-two in 1894. At the present day there are in Travancore 51 English High Schools for boys, 14 for girls; 14 English Middle Schools for boys and 22 for girls. Most of the districts are well provided with English schools and English education has been brought to the doors of everyone.[2] If girls' schools have not grown equally well in numbers, it is because of the growing practice of co-education. The number of girls studying in boys' schools is larger than the number of girls studying in girls' schools.[3]

A Superintendent of English schools was appointed in 1887. In 1895, Dr. Mitchell, a Scotch educationist, was appointed Educational Secretary to the Government. In that same year a new grant-in-aid code was made up, a new classification of educational institutions set up and standards established. The controlling agencies were enlarged in numbers and powers; and requirements in the way of their qualifications were raised. The pay of teachers of all grades was revised and increased. In 1909 Dr. Mitchell was appointed the first Director of Public Instruction. He promulgated a new education code and a new inspection code, revised the curricula of the English and Vernacular schools, introduced Manual Training, reorganized female education, substituted the School Leaving Certificate system for the old matriculation, and founded the Training College.

1. Report of the Travancore University Committee, Chap. 2.
2. Education Department, Administration Report, 1927, p. 110.
3. Education Department, Administration Report, 1927—28, p. 5

Tests of efficiency were imposed on all schools demanding recognition and were rigorously enforced. The pay of teachers was again revised and placed on a more generous scale, high academic qualifications being at the same time required for employment in the educational service. A liberal scheme of scholarships was set forth. In short, education was stepped up in all its branches.

In Cochin too, the same kind of advance has taken place. English education in that state started with a school founded by a Christian missionary. It was closed in 1821, but another English elementary school was started in its stead and at the same place in 1835, which continues to exist to the present day. Between 1837 and 1848, three English schools were opened by the government. In 1865 the services of an European headmaster were secured and English education began to make rapid headway. At the present day there are in Cochin 23 government and 15 private English High Schools, 36 Government English Middle Schools and 58 private ones.[1]

This brief resume shows that English education in both states started with private initiative, though later it was brought under the responsibility and control of the Government, which has been forced to provide schools to a greater degree in these states than in British India for very special reasons. Vernacular education is free and no fees are charged for it, and hence few private agencies can afford to shoulder the responsibility. Again, with the stringent application of the rules of the education code of 1909 in regard to plant, equipment and staff, a large number of weak and undesirable institutions succumbed. Their places had to be taken by government institutions. The result has been a great growth in the number of government institutions with consequent and crushing educational expenditure. The Administration Report for 1927-28 said (p. 150). "The government is now spending more than Rs. 39½ lakhs ($1,254,545) or nearly 17 per cent of the state revenue on

1. Report on the Administration of Cochin 1928—29.

education." The Report for 1928-29 (p. 24) says that the expenditure was 41 lakhs ($1,500,000) representing an increase of six per cent over the figures for the previous year. The Report for 1929-30 (p. 194) says that the government was spending Rs. 41 lakhs ($1,500,000) or a little over sixteen per cent of the state revenue on education. We have not heard the last of such increases in educational expenditure. Larger budgets loom in the future. The Report for 1928-29 (p. 21) says "The steady growth in educational expenditure has been the natural consequence of the expansion of education in the state and of the policy of toning up the agencies and instruments of education. While this has caused some not unnatural alarm to the layman, to the person conversant with the actual conditions in the schools and to the difficulty of maintaining due standards of efficiency, while at the same time meeting all legitimate demands for the opening of new schools, and new and higher classes in existing schools, the surprise has always been that the expenditure has been kept as low as it had been. The low salaries paid to the army of teachers employed in the Vernacular schools, in the State, have long been a source of dissatisfaction. The attempt to give some relief to this class of teachers has resulted in the addition of a sum of two lakhs ($72,727) to the anticipated expenditure of the current year."

The public has raised the cry that educational expenditure has grown, is growing, and ought to be curtailed.[1] That seems to be the burden of every official report also. More than one ends by saying "the further development of education in the country will have to depend more largely on private enterprise, and this the government are encouraging by a system of liberal grants-in-aid."[2] The Report of 1928-29 (p. 19) gives a graph which shows how the private

1. Proceedings 26th Session of the Popular Assembly 1930, p. 90 Proceedings of the Legislative Council 1930, Vol. XXII, No, 3, p. 217.
2. Report 1927—28, p. 150.

schools have overtaken departmental schools in respect of the number of pupils educated, ever since 1923. So the shift to private schools is in process (p. 20). The departmental schools are losing year after year in numbers.

Devolution of the educational burden on the shoulders of private bodies appears to be justified by the experience of the past, by the practice of the present and by the demands of the future. The Christian missions have from the very beginning borne a large part of the educational burden of the state. Besides being educational pioneers, the various Catholic and Protestant missions have sustained their interest in the educational problems of the country. Recently the growth in interest in communal welfare as shown by uplift movements[1] has brought into the educational field powerful communal organizations like the Nair Society and the Ezhava S. N. D. P. Yogam, to the task of maintaining schools. In several cases individuals are running schools, some for philanthropic reasons, others for private profit. It has been often times pointed out that even in the matter of successes in examinations private institutions did better than government schools, while they attain to the full the aims with which they are started and which could not have been attained under government auspices, as the government schools have to be non-sectarian. As we have pointed out (Chapter 1) the devolution of the educational function on local authorities may result in a form of education more in accord with local needs. For these reasons it has been suggested that the government should progressively divest itself of participation in secondary education.

The *modus vivendi* for this consummation is through the system of grants-in-aid and inspection. Instead of building schools and running them, the government can encourage others to do so by grants-in-aid; and at the same time secure itself against a laxity of standards by organizing rigorous inspection. At the present day[2] there are 41

1. See Kohn—Nationalism in the East, p 73.
2. Report 1928—29, p. 110.

departmental English schools with a pupil population of 15,189 & 187 private English schools with a total enrollment of 32,961. Thus private agencies undertake the task of educating 68·3 per cent. of the pupils attending English schools, while the departmental schools take care of about 31·6 per cent. The suggestion is to extend this arrangement further. The private institution need not always be an aided institution. Several of them are unaided For the grant is paid after an examination of the books of the school. If the expenditure exceeds the income, the government steps in and makes good this deficit, to a maximum of fifty per cent. in boys' schools and seventy-five per cent. in the case of girls' schools. In many areas and with long established institutions the income often exceeds the expenditure and a profit accrues, or both balance, and under such conditions, no grant is made.

Grants are awarded for a variety of purposes for the payment of a portion of the salaries of the teachers, for the purchase of furniture, permanent fittings and educational appliances, for the erection and extension of educational buildings, for the payment of stipends to teachers under training, and for reimbursing to the management a proportion of the fee-income lost in granting concessions to pupils of the backward and depressed classes.[1] The object of these grants is to secure a minimum standard of efficiency. The amount of the grant to any institution is subject to periodical, often annual revision.[2] Grant-in-aid therefore involves inspection. In Travancore the English schools for boys are under an inspector who has three assistants, one of whom is assigned to the office at headquarters while the other two tour the country. The English and Vernacular girls' schools are under an inspectress who has several assistants. These inspectors see that the conditions laid down in the Code are complied with and administer the grant. They also supervise the teaching. The education department

1. Education Code Rule 147 b—Correction.

2. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1925, p. 264.

lays down curricula, the Text-Book Committee prescribes the text-books, and the Government conducts the examination. The school which fails to abide by the rules of the education authorities loses its recognition and is not allowed to present candidates for the government examination. Pupils educated in such unrecognized schools cannot transfer themselves to other schools. In short, no school can exist outside the government system which is all embracing in matters educational.

English education is imparted in two grades of schools—in the English middle schools and the English high schools. For both these types of schools, as well as the vernacular schools, the foundation is laid by the four year elementary school in which the instruction is altogether in the vernacular. The link between the vernacular school and the English school is the fifth year class called, aptly enough, the preparatory class, since it prepares for English education by beginning to teach English as a language. The English middle schools carry instruction three years further to the end of the Third Form, and the English high schools carry it six years further to the end of the Sixth Form. There is only one public examination for the pupils attending the English schools. It comes at the end of the whole school course of eleven years. In the olden days it used to be called the matriculation examination, since it was meant for university entrance, and it was conducted by the university itself. Responsibility for this examination involved the university in the duties of inspecting schools and laying down curricula of studies. The constituent area for the university was so great, the schools so numerous, that the university found it impossible to provide the necessary machinery and relied upon the reports of the government inspectors.[1] The power of the university to prescribe curricula remained real for good or evil. In the year 1907, the matriculation

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1925 p. 266 except the University of Calcutta which maintained an inspectional staff to test the efficiency of the schools before recognition (Travancore University Committee Report p.256.)

examination was supplemented by the English school leaving certificate examination. The university still conducted the matriculation examination, but it grew to be less and less popular since it ceased to be the sole accredited entrance to university studies. The English School Leaving Certificate also provided entrance to the university. The examination for it was conducted by boards constituted by the governments concerned. The school leaving certificates awarded by the examining boards of Travancore and Cochin respectively, confer the right of admission to colleges affiliated to the University of Madras, under certain conditions which have been from time to time laid down by the university authorities. Certificates which fulfil these conditions, which are mainly concerned with the minima required in different subjects, are registrable with the university as equivalent to its matriculation. Certificates which fulfilled certain other conditions, conferred eligibility upon their holders for entrance to the public service.

The School Leaving Certificate examination is a more modern type of examination than the old matriculation. It was meant to achieve several distinct reforms in Indian education. First of all it attempted to minimize, the evils of an external examination by taking account of the school work of the candidates and of their class ratings instead of relying upon the results of a single examination.[1] Secondly it was meant to effect a devolution of powers in the matter of prescribing curricula for schools scattered over a widely diversified country from a central authority. This freedom was not fully taken advantage of by the schools whose main objective has been till now to prepare candidates for university entrance.[2] Thirdly, by opening the door to life vocations, it attempted to prevent the schools from degenerating into a single track system leading to the university. Obsessed with the glamor of a university degree the Indian public has not yet envisaged the school

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute p. 279.

2, Administration Report 1928—29, pp. 3—4,

as preparing for life in all its aspects. As a consequence the abolition of the old matriculation and the introduction of the school leaving certificate system has only resulted in relaxing the rigor of university entrance and flooding the colleges with students of all degrees of attainments. But a change in the public estimation of university degrees is within sight. Such degrees no longer prove infallible passports for gainful occupations. The miseries of educated unemployment may yet lead to the dissociation of the schools from the university and to such reforms in the prevailing literary tone of Indian secondary education as to give it a practical turn.

The curriculum of studies now in use in the English schools is the one prescribed in 1909[1], and should be described as largely literary and unpractical in nature. There are eight compulsory subjects, which are, in order of their importance, English, elementary mathematics, vernacular composition and translation, elementary nature study, geography, history, drawing, physical training. Up to the last three years of the English course, these subjects are studied continuously. In the high school stage there is a certain amount of specialization. While the compulsory subjects still continue to be studied, the pupil is also required to choose two subjects for intensive study from a list of optional subjects which includes algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, botany, geography, history of India, history of Great Britain and Ireland, a second language (choice of Sanskrit, Arabic, Latin, Greek, Malayalam, Tamil, Hindustanee, French, German), agriculture, commercial practice, book-keeping, typewriting, office correspondence and practice, domestic economy, hygiene, needlework and dressmaking, embroidery and lacemaking, music and elementary design. Though the list looks imposing, it is merely a list on paper, so far as the practical subjects are

1. Travancore University Committee's Report, p. 47.
See Courses of Instruction for Elementary and Secondary Schools of Travancore (Government Press 1929).

concerned. Their vogue is limited both by the students who wish to take them and by the schools which offer instruction in them and both may be counted on the fingers of one's hands In fact, they are merely on the curriculum in response to the outcry for a practical education. In the same way lip service has been paid to several modern movements in education. When the wave of enthusiasm for a new conception in education reaches the coast of Malabar its force is spent and it remains a lifeless, meaningless accretion like so much driftwood on a desert shore. In 1910 a European organizer of manual training was appointed and attached to the Training College at Trivandrum. He retired in 1927 after having successfully introduced handwork into most schools and woodwork in two at the capital.[1] Similarly scouting[2] and medical inspection[3] have been introduced into the school system. These remain but isolated activities without affecting the underlying principles of education. The need for differentiating curricula as between the sexes led to the appointment of a committee for the purpose whose proposals have been put into effect as far as it lies within the power of the education department to do so.[4] Singing and sewing have been included in the curricula of girls' schools, and in one departmental girls' school a special section is maintained, giving a course of instruction covering three years to senior girls in subjects coming under domestic science such as cookery, sick nursing, first-aid, and needlework. In two of the public examinations conducted by the Education Department, domestic economy has been included as as optional subject.[5]

In regard to the supply of the material requisites of good teaching, there is abundant room for improvement. In a country where buildings and equipment of a costly nature

1. Report 1927-28, p. 6 Report 1926-27, p. 63.
2. Report 1926-27, p. 55.
3. Report 1924-25, p. 34.
4. Travancore University Committee's Report, pp 48-49; 321-26.
5. Report 1928-29, p. 7.

are not insistently needed, the Travancore school system displays some very fine buildings, splendidly equipped. The departmental requirements in the matter of buildings and equipment are prescribed in great detail and stringently enforced.[1] If there is any question as to these requirements, it is only whether they have been thought out in relation to the needs of the country rather than blindly adopted from other lands. In spite of the stringent requirements, report after report of the Education Department complains of defective accommodations and of ill-equipped schools.[2]

There can be no two opinions however, as to the lack of proper educational appliances. "Modern secondary education is expensive. Possible retrenchments in the way of buildings and furniture might be explored, but consistenty with the maintenance of really good standards of instruction and school work there should be no falling away in the desire to equip every school with the necessary teaching appliances and books in a liberal manner. The requirements of the teaching of physical and natural science necessitates the provision of apparatus, chemicals and work tables as well as a proportionate increase in class accommodation and supervising staff. We have schools with apparatus and no accommodation. We have an even larger number of institutions with neither apparatus nor accommodation."[3] The Department of Education insists on an annual purchase of appliances and encourages it by grants-in-aid. But the amount available annually even to the departmental schools is unsatisfactory. The twenty departmental high schools of 1928 spent among them Rs. 6346-16 chs.-6 c. ($2305) for appliances including apparatus and chemicals. This works out an average of $112 per school per year. These same schools buy books for the libraries to the value of Rs. 4584—17—9 ($1664) which yields an average per school per year of $80. Such

1. Education Code, Chapters 14 and 15.
2. The following Reports; 1927-28, p. 35; 1926-27, p. 37; 1928-29, p. 51; 1925-26, p. 31; 1924-25, p. 33.
3. Report 1928-29, p. 52.

amounts are small even if taken as recurrent expenditure, but their bulk goes for initial equipment.[1]

To a certain extent, lack of equipment can be made up for by good methods of teaching. But it is here that we come across the most woeful defect of the educational system. If there is any uniform method of teaching, the textbook method can lay claim to the distinction. Where the medium of instruction is an ill-understood foreign language, the evils of the textbook method are exaggerated. When further the system hinges upon the external examination, the full harvest of evils is reaped. Verbalism, and ill-understood memorization, hinder the true education of the pupil by concealing instead of revealing the natural and social character of his environment. What is learned has no relation to real life. The pupil in Malabar can well repeat the saying of G. B. Shaw that his education was interrupted by his schooling. The Textbook Committee prescribes the books not always on educational considerations alone, and the publishing companies do not rely entirely upon the merits of their products in their appeal for official patronage. Eminent scholars and educationists are not retained by these companies on their staffs, as in America. Considering such handicaps the textbooks show surprising merit. The textbook method usually trails the examination with all its evils and the Education Department plays into its hands in this matter. It judges the efficiency of the schools by their successes in the examination. The Report of 1926—27 (p.43) says; "The headmasters of the 127 vernacular middle schools in the State were ranked in the order of the percentage of pupils that passed from each school in the vernacular school leaving examination of 1926.....a copy of the list of headmasters thus ranked was sent to every school." Under such circumstances, methods of teaching the subjects are employed which can hardly be called educative. Each school strains its every nerve to produce good results; and some of the true objectives of education, such as character

1. Ibid p. 52.

outcomes, social attitudes, and moral ideals, remain unattained. In examinations, incidental values are overlooked and what Dr. Kilpatrick calls concomitants and simultaneous learnings[1] have been lost sight of. Dynamic methods which will promote critical thinking, individual methods which will create initiative and self reliance, socialized methods which will teach social participation, opportunities for free self-expression which will develop creative ability, extra-curricular activities which will interpret education in relation to society, pupil self-government which will make for active citizenship, projects which will test the social and individual worth of knowledge by relating it to doing, have not yet received their place in the educational system of the country.

Leaving the problem of "wider methods" and coming to the question of "narrow methods," or the methods of teaching individual subjects, the Report of 1927—28 (p.37) says: "It is reported that teachers are keeping themselves in touch with the latest methods of teaching." The same report says in the same place, ".....practical instruction in the teaching of science has been introduced in a few schools," which amounts to the confession that in many schools even now and in all schools until now, science instruction used the memoriter and textbook methods rather than the heuristic and notebook methods, a statement which will be nearer the mark of the actual situation.[2]

The Report for 1925—26 says (p.42) that the direct method is being used to teach English. It is very doubtful if this is the whole truth. It is very difficult to convince even teachers under training of the efficacy of the direct method. In spite of all efforts and the great advancement in methods of teaching reading elsewhere in the world, in most Travancore schools reading is still taught by the alphabetic method. The conversation method is not fully understood or used except when, during his year of training,

1. Kilpatrick—Foundations of Method.
2. Travancore University Committee Report Chap. 2.

the teacher had been supplied with and practiced in, actual lesson forms exemplifying the method. It is undoubtedly true that where the direct method is used, it is not used as a live method, and the local applications and qualifications of the method called for in the Indian environment have not been supplied.[1] These qualifications, are so great as almost to change the character of the direct method and in the reading method of Mr. West. we are almost faced with a new method of teaching modern foreign languages created by the special situation in India[2] The University of Madras prescribed Mr. West's "Bi-lingualism" for students preparing for the degree in teaching, with a view to giving currency to his method. But it is quite right to say that his ideas have not yet been made over into the practice of the lower schools. When his "New Method Readers" are backed by authority and more commonly used, perhaps they will reform the teaching of English in India.

History has been fairly well taught, largely because of the distinguished departments of history in the colleges supply graduates well-equipped in the subject. The interest of the Indian boy in the newly discovered history of his own country makes almost any method effective with him. So much could not be said of the teaching of geography which unfortunately is the cinderella of the lower school curriculum. As the mother of all the sciences it should receive the best treatment in the earlier stinges and scientific study at the later. However, it is taught by the textbook method in the beginning and degenerates into an information study in the high schools.[3] Being a "compulsory" subject, which does not count in the final examination, no pupil is "interested" in it and the teachers are hard put to it to keep control of the class. The importance of geography is only now being

1. Wyatt: Teaching of English in India.
   West: Indian School Management and Inspection, p. 86.
2. West: Bi-lingualism.
   West: Language in Education, pp. 52-54.
3. Travancore University Committee Report, Chap. II.

recognized in the Indian universities and when more graduates, who have studied geography in the colleges, enter the schools as teachers, the teaching of the subject is bound to improve.

There is no properly organized pre-school or kindergarten education in India says Mr. Richey[1], and he believes the reason is because women cannot be persuaded to teach in boys' schools. This reason for the absence of kindergartens will not hold true of Malabar where there are large numbers of women graduates who do not object to teaching in boys' schools. There are kindergartens in girls' schools, to which boys are often admitted. The real reason why the movement for pre-school and kindergarten education has not received support is the failure to see the importance of differentiating methods in different parts of the school. If the necessity to employ methods suited to the age and interests of children were only recognised, there are enough women graduates to take over the lower years of the school. This will not merely improve instruction in the primary grades but will also give a fillip to the higher education of women by providing work for numbers that are now unemployed.

Inspection could certainly prove of great value in improving teaching. "The chief object of the inspector should be to impart a knowledge of the method of teaching and class management to the teacher rather than to test the progress of the pupils and to supervise the condition of the school..... In European countries the inspectors teach the class in the presence of the teachers, hold conferences of teachers in their own circles, encourage the teachers to to carry on new experiments in educational methods and take them to schools where new experiments are being made. The inspector goes to the school not as an undesirable intruder, but as a sympathetic friend. The inspectional staff in India is the principal agency for killing innovations, spoiling new experiments in school education and keeping

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1925 p.365.

everything on the same permanent pattern."[1] Inspection is often inquisition, with hardly any constructive suggestion. In London, side by side with the purely administrative inspectors, there are the supervisors of subject teaching.[2] In the United States there are the supervisors of special subjects for different areas.[3] "So far as inspection is concerned (in England), the main function of the inspectors is to serve as the chief agents of 'cross fertilization', to discover the best that is being done under the conditions of practice, and to bring this information to the attention of teachers, rather than to enforce any theoretical standards."[4]

In India the inspectional staff is too small to do anything more than the purely routine work. In England, with an area of 58,000 square miles, with a population of thirty-six millions, there are 34,000 elementary and secondary schools with six million pupils. British India, with an area of 1,100,000 square miles and a population of two hundred forty-seven millions, has 200,000 primary and secondary schools, and ten million pupils.[5] Travancore, with an area of 7,625 square miles and four million people, has 40,032 educational institutions and a school population of 562,837.[6] In England there are 241 inspectors in the higher grade (172 men and 69 women). In India the corresponding number is 282 (225 men and 57 women). For the English schools in Travancore there are one chief inspector and three assistants, one of whom is always at headquarters. The Inspector of English schools has to inspect all of the 53 high schools, and each of his two assistants has to inspect 75 and 88 English middle schools respectively. The girls' high and middle schools are inspected by the Chief Inspectress

1. Ahmed: Systems of Education p. 277.
2. Kandel: Elementary Education in England, pp. 13-14.
3. Cubberley: Public School administration pp 354-362 also p. 292.
4. Kandel: Essays in Comparative Education p. 28.
5. Hartog; Indian Statutory Committee Interim Report, Chap. 16.
6. Administration Report 1929-30, p. 199—200.

of schools.[1] In India, inspection, supervision and control are held to be luxuries on which money should not be wasted.[2]

Another reason why inspection has not led to the improvement of teaching is that the inspectors themselves are, generally speaking, unqualified and untrained. "In Bengal as many as ninety-one members of the subordinate inspecting staff have qualifications lower than that of a trained intermediate, in Bihar, eighty-four of the sub-inspectors are untrained undergraduates; and in the central provinces forty-two of the deputy inspectors have qualifications lower than trained intermediates. On the other hand in Madras and the Punjaub the untrained inspector is the exception.[3] In Travancore, too, most of the Inspectors are well qualified and trained men, but they have not been selected for their knowledge of or faith in, good methods of teaching. Often the headmaster and the inspector are pretty well advanced in age and in regard to "educational age" they should be considered even older, belonging as they do to an older educational generation out of touch with the new. They have a way of frowning upon new methods and of placing difficulties in the way of giving effect to ideas obtained during the period of training.[4]

Arrangements for the in-service growth of the teacher, which might keep him in touch with educational movements elsewhere in the world, have not yet been developed. There are few circulars or pamphlets issuing from education authorities as in the case of the Board of Education of England. The Report of 1927-28 (p.43) says that this is being done for vernacular education. The Report of 1924-25 speaks of lesson plans being supplied to the vernacular schools (p. 38). The Reports of 1924-25, (p. 38), and of 1926-27, (p. 44), commend the work of teachers' associations which are said to "give facilities for

1. Ibid. p. 203.
2. Hartog-Ibid. p. 306.
3. Hartog-Ibid, p. 336.
4. Hartog: Report Ibid p. 77.

the teachers to exchange their thoughts on teaching, to hear lectures on educational subjects, to see model lessons given by good teachers and to benefit themselves in several ways." The reports also speak of educational exhibitions and teachers' conferences. There is an all-Travancore teachers' association with headquarters at Trivandrum, which publishes a teachers' magazine, arranges for an annual conference and promotes lectures on educational subjects, but its influence on education as a whole and on the teaching population, is slight and nothing comparable to the N.E.A. in America or the N. U. T. in England.

The teacher will always remain the hub of the educational system; and his selection and qualifications are therefore matters of great importance. As Guizot put it. "The master makes the school." Good teachers make good schools, and a school system excellent in all other respects may be ruined by bad teachers. In Travancore, it was difficult at first to secure teachers for English schools. Most of the earlier students of English schools turned teacher; but it was doubtful if they remained long in the work. As the administration was being modernized openings for well educated young men in departments of greater prestige and pay were numerous. Most of the high officials who retired from service in Travancore in the first quarter of the twentieth century had begun life as teachers. Until recently young men have taken up teaching as a stepping stone to other and more profitable careers. The Law College provided morning and evening classes which were convenient for students who were earning their way by teaching in the schools. As soon as they qualified in the law they either set up practice or entered the service of the government. This may be very well for rising young men, but it was bad for the schools. It was economical for the private school managers to employ law students as teachers, and, by discharging them during vacations, they saved on the vacation pay and on the annual increments usually awarded for permanent teachers. When the law student left teaching

the manager engaged another on a beginner's salary. So prevalent and pernicious was this practice that the Education Code forbade it through one of its provisions:—"The Director may suspend or cancel a license if the person in whose favor it has been issued attends any course of instruction in law, or engaged in any trade, business or occupation which in the opinion of the Director is incompatible with the efficient discharge of his duties as a teacher." (p. 15). In 1909 there was a reorganization of the school system which called for more teachers and provided for efficiency through decent pay with time scales. There was a rush of the better teachers from all quarters into the government schools. The tenure of the teacher become more permanent and the perquisites of teaching, more attractive.

But the greatest influence for the improvement of the quality of the teaching staff has been the growth in the out put of the colleges. This was so great that it could not all be absorbed by the social demand for its services. A large part of it remained unemployed. Under the circumstances, the Education Department raised the qualifications needed for employment in its service and selected only the best. The larger the scope, the easier was it to employ the teacher best suited for the particular class of work demanded of him. In olden days many teachers were instructors in subjects which they had not studied in their school or college careers. Others were teaching more than one subject. Now it was possible to introduce the specialist system in school staffing and to abolish subject combinations. The growth of the nationalist movement and of communal schools is bringing into the schools men of a higher and higher calibre, self-consecrated to the profession in its highest aspects, with the result that the prestige of the teaching profession is rising.

The pay and prospects of the teaching profession are such as to attract men of ability. Headmasters of high schools draw Rs. 200 ($72·75)—20 ($7·25)—300 ($109·9) per mensem ; first grade teachers Rs. 125 ($45·50)—$\frac{10}{1}$ ($3·75)

—175 ($63·75); second grade teachers Rs. 50 ($18·20)—$\frac{5}{1}$ (1·72)—70 ($15·50)—$\frac{5}{1}$ ($1·72)—120 ($42·72); women graduates Rs. 75 ($27·25)—$\frac{10}{1}$ ($3·75)—125 ($43·72)—$\frac{10}{1}$ ($3·75)—175 ($63·75). There are 169 undergraduate teachers in the lower departments of English high schools drawing Rs. 50 ($18·20)—$\frac{5}{2}$ (1·72)—70 ($25·50) 142 drawing Rs. 25 ($9·)—$\frac{5}{2}$ ($1·72)—40 ($14·50)—$\frac{5}{3}$ ($1·72)—50 ($18·20). In the English middle schools for boys there are 72 undergraduate teachers drawing 60 ($21·75)—$\frac{5}{1}$ ($1·72)—85 ($31·); 71 drawing Rs. 25 ($9·)—$\frac{5}{2}$ (1·72)—40 ($14·50)—$\frac{5}{3}$ ($1·72)—50 ($18·20). In the English middle schools for girls there are 21 teachers drawing Rs. 30 ($11·)—$\frac{5}{2}$ ($1·72)—40 ($14·50)—$\frac{5}{3}$ ($1·72)—50 ($18·10)[1]. These salary schedules compare very well with those in force in Bengal and other parts of British India.[2] It is understood that the salaries in the schools under private management should correspond to these schedules. An able graduate taking service when young may hope to retire as a headmaster at the least.

The qualifications of teachers in English schools are given in the Code with careful detail. From the preparatory class to the third form of the school where there is no specialization, the teacher's academic qualification is high school graduation as a minimum. He should be trained without delay. For the fourth, fifth and sixth forms, four-year college graduation with a major in the subject which the teacher plans to teach is the academic qualification. Without much delay the teachers would be deputed to a Training College where a year's study secures the professional qualification of licentiate in teaching. It is suggested that headmasters should have the Master's degree but age, experience and ability usually count for much in the appointment to such places. Such is the set up of the educational system for which teachers are to be trained.

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1. Quarterly Civil List of Travancore, p. 113-116.
2. C. U. C. R.—Vol. 3-p. 21.

CHAPTER III.

The Teachers College at Trivandrum.

Trivandrum is the political capital of Travancore and, in many respects, it is also the educational capital. It is the headquarters of the Education Department and it contains the higher institutions of learning of the country. No wonder, therefore, that when a central institution for the training of teachers was contemplated, the location fell to Trivandrum. The choice is admirable in so far as the place is the cultural centre of Travancore. During his period of training the future teacher has the opportunity of entering into the cultural life of the country as it is represented and concentrated in the capital. The only drawback is that to the impecunious teacher the cost of living in the capital is often too heavy.

The location of the Normal School was also due in part to the logic of historical circumstances. At the time when the old Normal School was established, education in the Mufussal had not advanced to a very great extent, but education had made great headway in the capital. A school for training teachers would naturally, therefore, be established there. The first training institution was a Normal School and 1885, the date of its establishment, was also the year in which the University of Madras decided to have the Faculty of Teaching to award the degree of Licentiate in Teaching.[1] The Normal School undertook the training of undergraduate teachers only, graduate teachers being trained in the Teachers College of the Government of Madras, located in Saidapet, a suburb of Madras, and affiliated with the University of Madras. The expansion of education in the Madras presidency was so rapid, the demand for trained teachers so great, and the accommodations of the one teachers college were so limited, that the Madras government closed

1. Report of the Travancore University Committee, p. 19, but the Training College Calendar of 1927—28, p. 53, gives the date as 1895.

its doors to Travancore students after 1911.[1] At about this time, a comprehensive scheme was being formulated for the reorganization of education in Travancore. Part of this scheme was the establishment of a Teachers College in Trivandrum affiliated with the University of Madras. Since Cochin was in the same predicament as Travancore, and since both together might be able to provide enough grist for the mill, the two Indian States entered into an agreement and conjointly founded the new college, which was opened in a specially designed building, in June 1911. The first principal, Dr.G.F.Clark, was an alumnus of the Universities of Glasgow and Jena. The new college was housed in the premises of the old Normal School, which became absorbed in it, continuing to train undergraduate teachers.

Training classes for women teachers were opened in the Girls' College in 1904. They continued to be attached to this college till 1920, the highest grade of work undertaken being the training of undergraduates for the local senior-teachers' certificate examination. In the three years, 1921-1924, these classes were absorbed in a Government Training School for women located in the neighbourhood of the Government high school for girls. In 1924 the higher grade English section of this Training School was abolished and transferred to the Training College, which for the first time admitted women undergraduates.[2] The women graduate students of Cochin are at present sent to the Lady Willingdon Training College at Madras while women students, who are not teachers in service, attend that college or St. Christopher's Training College for Women in Madras.

The Teachers College at Trivandrum has two departments, one of which is termed the graduate department and the other the undergraduate department. The latter trains teachers whose academic qualification is not below high school graduation but below the B. A. These departments are also spoken of as "Collegiate" and "Secondary"

1. Trivandrum Training College Calendar 1927-28, p. 53.
2. Calendar 1927-28, p. 53.

respectively. The graduates prepare for a university degree while the undergraduates prepare for a diploma, awarded by the State, known as the English Trained Teacher's Certificate.

Admission to the Training College in both its departments is open only to teachers employed in the schools of Travancore, whether under government or private management. Managers of private schools send requisitions for admission on behalf of teachers employed in their schools to the Chief Inspector or Chief Inspectress, as the case may be, who forwards them to the Director of Public Instruction with their own recommendations. The inspectors also make out a list of those teachers from the government schools who are to be trained in any particular year. Out of these lists the Director ultimately selects those who should be admitted to the Training College, having in view considerations of seniority and a proper balancing of the subjects in which training is to be given.

At first the college admitted only twenty-four students each, in its graduate and undergraduate departments and the number never exceeded thirty in either. In 1923, Dr. Clark left the Travancore service and Rao Bahadur. Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar, a Professor of History and Economics in the Liberal Arts College, was appointed to succeed him. It was tacitly understood that he should reorganize the work of the Teachers College, and with this object he was deputed to visit other teachers colleges in the Madras Presidency. One of the mandates to him was to reduce the annual expenditure of the college which stood at Rs. 115,1[illegible]2 ($41, 886) in 1921-22, a sum which earned for the College the title of "white elephant" from the local politicians. The new buildings, where the Training College was accommodated, were originally meant to house the Model School. A newer and spacious structure of three stories was in process of construction, and to this the college would be moved in fulness of time. However, it was said that the new building was not to be for the

Teachers College, but was to accommodate the overflow from the Maharaja's College, the arts section of which was to be separated from the science branch, and taken over to the new buildings. The appointment of Mr. Rangaswami Aiyangar, it was said, was in anticipation of this.

Mr. Rangaswami Aiyangar's reorganization of the Training College brought down the unit cost per student by increasing the number of students admitted to each group and by filling the model school classes to the limit fixed by the Education Code. The work on the new building proceeded apace, and when the building was completed, the arts section of the Maharaja's College was moved into it, Mr. Rangaswami Aiyangar being made the principal of the newly constituted Arts College. The increased numbers in the Training College were accommodated by structural alterations to the Model School buildings. Mr. Rangaswami Aiyangar continued to be principal of the Teachers College as well.

The government order of the 15th of May, which brought about the increase in number, also changed other conditions of admission. Ten seats were reserved for women students in each group; ten more were left open for private students, that is, men who were not necessarily employed in Travancore Schools. These conditions had later to be modified by the government. For the first year or two after the new regulations, sufficient women were found to fill the places reserved for them, but since teaching positions were not available for those who qualified themselves, few women undertook the training in subsequent years. In 1924-1925, there were ten women students in the graduate class and eight in the undergraduate class; in 1925-1926, the numbers were five and five; in 1926-1927 they were three and five; in 1927-1928, two and seven; in 1928-1929, two and seven.[1] Thus the reform which was undertaken with the praiseworthy motive of giving an impetus to female education, was not able to achieve its object. That there

1. Training College Calendar pp. 54 and 210.

are more women students in the undergraduate class is due to the fact that there are larger numbers of girls' English middle schools than girls' English high schools. The college continues to train as many women each year as offer themselves subject to a maximum of ten in each class.

The provision which enabled students to come of their own accord, without being deputed by the government or private school managers, and which introduced the admirable practice of pre-service education, had unfortunately enough, to be revised. It permitted teachers, despite their rank in the service, to go and get training, if they could afford the expense. Ordinarily they had to bide their chance which did not arrive until all their seniors had been trained. The new regulation, by permitting men to enter on their period of training before their time and at their own expense, had to cope with the problem of increment which followed taking the degree of Licentiate in Teaching. Those who followed this plan claimed the increment in pay, by getting which they became seniors to others who were actually their seniors in point of service. This introduced complications in the ranking of teachers and the regulation had consequently to be changed and the college continues to enroll only students recruited from those in service and earning stipends during their periods of training. There are fifty in the graduate class, seven of whom are from Cochin. There are fifty in the undergraduate class, all of whom are from Travancore schools.

During the period of training the government teachers get their substantive pay as a deputation allowance; teachers from private schools receive a stipend of Rs. 50 ($18·20) towards which the government contributes half. The undergraduate teachers receive a stipend of Rs. 25 ($9·) per month, whatever their salary. Both graduates and undergraduates have to enter into a bond with the government for the amount received as grant which will not be claimed if the teacher in bond serves the department for at least five years. During these five years he should supply the

principal of the Training College with such information as may be prescribed to enable the latter to keep up the record of trained teachers. If these conditions are not fulfilled, he must refund the moneys advanced to him.[1]

Before admission, the candidate should submit a certificate of health and physical fitness to undergo training. This certificate was not required from those in government service, since they had already been medically examined before being admitted to the service. The education code says (p. 53) "No teacher shall be admitted, who is not fifteen years of age at the time of admission. In the case of those who are over thirty-five years of age the sanction of the Director must be obtained previous to admission." Students in the graduate class pay a fee of Rs. 150 ($54·40) per year and the undergraduate pays Rs. 60 ($21·85) per annum.

The graduate course extends over a year, but in actual fact, it is nothing over eight months. The college opens for the year about the end of June, closes for a week in September, for three weeks during Christmas, and for three months during the summer beginning the last week in March. The course, therefore, runs actually only for eight months and even then it is interrupted by a large number of holidays. Saturdays and Sundays are regular holidays and so is every new moon day. Besides these there are nineteen other holidays in the year, the number of which may often be increased, but never curtailed.[2] A month should be allowed for such holidays. The eight months thus dwindle down to seven with a five day week and a five hour day. The undergraduate period of training was originally two years; but since life in Trivandrum was found to be expensive, the Legislative Council was persuaded to pass a resolution cutting down the period of training to one year. This practice came into force in the year 1923-24.

The courses of study are laid down by the university in the case of the graduate students. The minimum

1. Training College Calendar 1927-28, pp. 69-72.
2. Training College Calendar pp. 15-16.

qualification for admission to the graduate class is graduation from a four year college with the B. A. or B. S. degree of an Indian university. In the B. A. course the student takes up the study of three branches-English language and literature, the mother tongue, and a third subject which may be any one of the following :—mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, biology, zoology, philosophy, history, economics, a classical language. The graduates are expected to teach in the English high schools where the specialist system prevails. Each teacher has, in most cases, to teach English and one other subject.

The program of studies in the graduate class is devised to meet both these situations. All students are expected to take "theory and practice of education including the special study of the work of a great educator or of a modern educational system" and "methods of teaching English", while they may choose one of the following special method courses: child education, mathematics, physical science, natural science, history, geography, one language other than English, domestic science. There was a time when the liberal arts course was not specialized and the teachers college course followed suit by giving a kind of method for teaching all subjects. The present system, however, has been declared to be better by all concerned.[1] At the present day it is found difficult to provide courses for those who have majored in philosophy in their college course or taken honors work in English language and literature.

The course in the "theory and practice of education," is in three parts. The first part comprises the elements of physiology and hygiene, so far as they may be required in the teacher's work. The second part deals with educational psychology, and the third part deals with the logical aspects of education, and the subjects of method, discipline, school organization and extra-curricular activities. In regard to the second division of this course, such subjects as the "Dalton Plan", "Bilingualism" and "Recent methods in achievement

1. See Duncan and Mackenzie: Training of Teachers, pp. 13-16.

testing" have been prescribed. The syllabus in the "methods of teaching English" reviews methods of teaching modern foreign languages selecting practices best suited to the teaching of English in India, discusses the place of the vernacular and of grammar, and suggests methods of using the text and of teaching composition, and introduces the elements of English phonetics. The syllabi in the special methods of the several subjects deal with the aim and values of each, and the various methods of teaching it, with a discussion of content and grading and the aids for effective teaching.

The undergraduates range in qualification all the way from those who have just obtained the school leaving certificate, through intermediates, to those who have completed nearly all of the subjects for the B. A. The course of instruction in the teachers college has to be adapted to those with the minimum qualifications. All of them have had the high school course in the school subjects, with a limited amount of specialization. They are expected to go back and to teach the lower forms where the class-teacher system prevails. Except for such subjects as drill and drawing, each teacher must teach every one of the common branches. Naturally, therefore, they have to be provided with matter and method to teach all subjects to the end of the eighth year of school, up to which stage the Code allows them to be employed as teachers. Such was the case when the period of training covered two years; but when it was reduced to one year, it was recognized that the special methods of teaching all subjects in the lower forms could not be telescoped within one year with advantage to anyone. Therefore a certain amount of specialization, following the specialization pursued by the pupil-teacher in his high-school course, was determined upon.[1]

Originally there were three groups of subjects, A, B and C. In the A group there were the following ten general

1. Education Code Rule 169, correction dated 2-6-26.

subjects:— English, Malayalam and Tamil, arithmetic and mensuration, experimental geometry, geography, history. elementary nature study, elementary agriculture, school hygiene, administrative system of the State. This list was condensed into three—matter and method in English, matter and method in mathematics, matter and method in history, nature study or geography. The B group contained five professional subjects—(1) departmental regulations, Travancore service regulations, school finance, official correspondence, (2) maintenance of school records, (3) school organization, (4) school discipline, (5) methods of teaching school subjects including English and agriculture. These became the principles of teaching including organization, discipline and hygiene. The C group of practical instruction and training contained ten items—drawing and blackboard work, elementary survey and plan drawing, map drawing and the preparation of physical maps, preparation of schemes of work and notes of lessons, and the proper use of reference books, teaching in the model school, criticism of lessons, elocution and reading, physical exercise and drill, school excursions and outdoor observation lessons, singing and needlework (in training schools for women). These have now become:—(1) drawing and blackboard work; (2) map drawing and preparation of maps (geography students only); (3) preparation of schemes of work, notes of lessons and the proper use of reference books; (4) teaching practice; (5) physical exercises and drill; (6) excursions and outdoor observation lessons (nature-study students only); (7) singing and needlework (in training schools for women).

The first point that we notice in the revision is that the difference between the academic and the professional subjects has been done away with and the subjects have been designated "matter-and-method" courses. In two years, time can certainly be devoted to improving the academic attainments of the students. With one year, even the matter-and-method courses could not by any means devote attention to the academic aspects of training. Again,

on the face of it, though the number of subjects appears to have been reduced, it is not so much reduction as combination with other subjects. To a certain extent the time saved by specialization would be devoted to improving the subject-matter knowledge of the students, especially in such subjects as geography and nature study in which instruction in the high school is not of a high order. But in English and mathematics time could be found only for the professional aspects.

The graduate students appear for the examination conducted by the University of Madras for the degree of Licentiate in Teaching. It is held twice every year, in April and September. There are usually four papers—two in general theory and practice of education, one in the special methods of teaching English and one in one of the eight special subjects mentioned above, which has been elected by the candidate in question. Candidates who obtain not less than 35% of the marks of the first two papers taken together, and 35% in each of the third and fourth papers, and 40% on the total of the last two cast together, will be declared to have passed. Those who score 60% of the grand total are classed in the first division, those who score 50% in the second, and the rest, who pass, are in the third class. Those who score more than 60% in either or both of the third and fourth papers are considered to have passed with distinction in those subjects.[1]

Formerly there was a practical examination as well. After the results of the written examination had been published, the successful candidates were called upon to teach in the presence of a board of examiners. This examination was held in a school with which the teacher generally had no acquaintance; the pupils were new to him, and there was the board of examiners sitting in judgement. The combination did not bring out the best in a teacher. Further, an examination conducted on this plan encouraged candidates to look upon the test as a sort of performance for

1. Calendar, University of Madras 1926-27, Vol. II, pp. 294-95.

which they had to prepare very much as an actor has to study his part in a play.[1] Hence the practical test was eliminated and the university regulations content themselves with the following: "The candidates shall undergo a course in practical training including instruction in school management and practice teaching. The constituent colleges are entrusted with the supervision of this work and are expected to report the fact of satisfactory work in this as in attendance and conduct."[2]

The examination for the Higher Grade English Trained Teacher's certificate is conducted by the Travancore education department. There is a written examination and a practical test. The written examination is made up of four papers—matter and method in English, in mathematics and in one of history, nature study and geography, and the principles of teaching including organization, discipline and hygiene. The practical test consists in the teaching of a class each in English, mathematics, and the elected subject, on a prescribed topic, in the presence of an examiner. This is followed by a *viva voce* examination before the practical examination board, who generally try to estimate his reading range and interests and otherwise rate his teaching personality. Both in the case of the graduates and the undergraduates the training college awards a diploma which takes into account the work done during the year.

Since the college is solely responsible for the practice teaching, the methods adopted deserve detailed notice. Graduates and undergraduates can be classed together in regard to this matter, for, except for the fact that they teach at the upper end and the lower end of the school respectively, they agree in the main in the principles on which the work is organized. There are four types of practical work—model lessons, criticism lessons, observation and practice teaching. Model lessons are given throughout the year, but specially during the earlier part. Before the work gets well under

1. Duncan and Mackenzie; *Op. Cit.* p. 25.
2. University Calendar, p. 401.

way, the lecturer in each subject demonstrates with a few type lessons after having explained the lesson forms and the manner of preparing them for each class. These provide models on which the future preparation and actual teaching of the students can be carried out. The procedure is as follows. The lecturer prepares notes of lessons which are distributed to the training class which is seated on both sides of the model-school class that is being taught. The halls are so built that when the model-school class is seated in front of the teacher there is ample seating room on both sides for the pupil teachers. The training class watches the progress of the lesson, noting the devices used and whether the lecturer achieves his aims. The periods during which such lessons are taught are double periods. After the first period, the model-school class is dismissed and the lecturer explains, during the second period, his method, his successes and failures, indicates the high and low spots in the lesson and requests the students to do the same. If it is the special methods of teaching English, the lecturer concerned is expected to have demonstrated an oral conversation lesson in the lowest and highest forms each, a recitation lesson, an appreciation lesson, a story composition lesson, a picture-composition lesson, an object-conversation lesson, a remembered description lesson and a grammar lesson.

During the early part of the year, the double periods provided in the time card are totally taken up with model lessons. During the rest of the year they are devoted to criticism lessons, which are similar in plan, the only difference being that the teacher in their case is not the lecturer, but the training students themselves, one after the other. The lecturer calls for volunteers or selects some one who has already had considerable experience in teaching and asks him to teach a particular type of lesson. The lesson is announced in class and he who is to teach, as well as those who are to observe, prepares notes. The one who is to teach the lesson prepares his notes with the advice of the lecturer and under his guidance. Since the class has also prepared for the

lesson, they have some idea as to how the lesson ought to develop and have something in their minds to observe with and their criticisms will be correspondingly well informed. When the model school class is dismissed, the lecturer calls upon two of the observers to comment on the lesson and then throws the lesson open to discussion. At the end of this general discussion the teacher is asked to reply and the lecturer sums up. As far as time permits, each student is given the chance of conducting a criticism lesson in each subject during his course of training.

Observation lessons are another kind of practical work. The teachers in the model school are a picked group and it is believed that their teaching is worth observing by neophytes. The training students get into touch with these teachers, prepare notes of lessons, enter the classes and observe the lesson, noting down whatever they find worthy of observation and imitation. The notes of lessons are expected to be looked over by the lecturers concerned. During the course of the lesson, the observers are not to interrupt the lesson, but if there is any point on which they require information or elucidation, they may confer with the teacher when the lesson is over. In the absence of a class teacher, during an observation period, the headmaster may call upon one of the observing students to teach the class as a substitute for the absent teacher.

The most important part of the practice work is student-teaching. The graduates have three periods of nine days each. One of the periods is devoted to teaching English, and the other two, to the teaching of their optional subject. In the year 1927, the first course in the graduate student-teaching began on the 18th day of August and closed on the 29th. The second began on the 10th of October and closed on the 18th, and the third began on the 10th of January, 1923, and closed on the 18th. The two days before the actual teaching days, are looked upon as preparation days, when the student takes advice with the lecturers, consults reference books and prepares notes of lessons for the classes

he is going to teach. These notes have to be submitted to the lecturer in charge, who goes over them corrects them and gives helpful suggestions. During the actual course of teaching the lecturer may enter the class at any moment and watch the lesson. He is expected to do this twice, in the case of each individual student-teacher, and to spend at least fifteen minutes on each visit, before he rates the performance. After the practice course is over, students can talk over their experiences with the lecturer who advises and guides them. The undergraduate student-teaching is similarly organized, only instead of having two periods of practice in the optional subject, they have but one, the other being taken up with practice in mathematics. In the year 1927 the three undergraduate periods of student teaching were: July 18th to 26th; November 3rd to the 11th; and December 9th to the 16th.

The notes for all such practical work are written on specially printed books, which follow the scheme laid down by Welton in his "Criticism Lessons". Preliminary classes are given in notemaking as well as in the methods of observation and criticism and the notebooks provide heads and ample room on the reverse for such. The Training College Calendar says (p. 103) "The notes of lessons should be written in note books, only one side of a sheet being utilized for the purpose. On the blank pages facing those on which the notes of lessons are written, the training students might enter their remarks or notes of observation." Hints for the conduct of observation lessons are published in the Training College Calendar (pp. 101-105), a copy of which is sold to each student at 6 as. (12 cents). They consist of an excerpt from Bagley's "Classroom Management", some rules of procedure and heads on which observation might be made. All student-teaching, criticism lessons, observation lessons and model lessons are conducted in the model school attached to the Training College; but the women students have their student-teaching in the girls' high school, though in the case of the lower forms

they carry on their practice in the model school itself. They are supervised in their practice by the woman lecturer.

Allied to practical work are three courses—manual training, drill and drawing. At present undergraduates and graduates undergo all three, almost one whole day being devoted to manual training and drawing by each class. For instance, the graduate students divide themselves into two sections, one of which goes to manual training in the forenoon on Wednesdays while the other takes it the same afternoon, having been engaged upon drawing in the forenoon. Both classes undergo drill and each student is expected to learn to drill a model-school class before he leaves the institution. The natural-science students are expected to learn how to set up specimens and conduct excursions. The physical science students have to study laboratory technique, the geography students have to learn map making, all may learn photography, while all must learn first aid.

The college day opens at 10 A. M. and closes at 4 P.M. with a midday recess between 1 and 2 P. M. It is divided into seven periods of 40 minutes each, making in all 35 periods for the week. Out of these "Theory and Practice of Education" secures 4 in the case of graduates and 3 for undergraduates. In the case of graduates, the special methods of teaching English are allotted 7 periods, four of which are taken up with model and criticism lessons. In the case of undergraduates the subject is granted seven periods, four of which are for criticism and model lessons, while one more is devoted to English phonetics. In the undergraduate class mathematics gets two lecture periods and one double period for model and criticism lessons. In both classes the optional subjects are allotted two lecture periods and a double period for model and criticism lessons. Drill and drawing each get two periods in either case and manual training three. The graduates have ten free periods and the undergraduates seven, most of which may be utilized for observation and some for library work.

Until 1923 there was a full time principal for the college; but since the college was merged with the Arts College, the principal of the latter institution does duty as head of the Training College, drawing in return an allowance of Rs. 100 ($36·30) a month. This has been spoken of as a temporary arrangement, but when Mr. Rangaswami Aiyangar acted as Director of Public Instruction, his successor in the Arts College succeeded him as head of the Training College as well, and the arrangement bids fair to continue. When the college was started, it had a vice-principal, Dr. Barker, who supervised the science work in the college. Dr. Barker became Director of Industries and after his departure, the place was alternately abolished and revived several times, and has finally been restored as a necessity in the present arrangement of a part time principal. His scale of pay is Rs. 300 ($109)—Rs. 500 ($181·75) per mensem. The present incumbent is the lecturer in natural science. There are two first-grade lecturers drawing Rs. 200 ($72·75)—300 ($109), one of whom is in charge of mathematics while the other is the woman lecturer. Then there are second-grade lecturers in English, education, history and physical science, each drawing Rs. 125 ($45·40) $\frac{10}{1}$ ($3·75)—175 ($63·75)—$\frac{0}{3}$ Rs. 200 ($72·75). Manual training is supervised by a lecturer in the first-grade assisted by one in the second. The drawing and drill masters, each get Rs. 100 ($36·30). To be a lecturer in the Training College one has to have a good academic degree and a good Licentiate in Teaching degree. Generally men with considerable experience in teaching are selected.

The Training College Hostel is very much like a fraternity house, where the students pay rent and manage their own mess, while the college provides the accommodation and supervision through the person of one of the college lecturers who is called deputy warden, with a monthly allowance. As in every other hostel in India, there is a vegetarian mess and a non-vegetarian mess. Generally the highcaste Hindus live in one of the houses and the Christians

in the other. The caste Hindu section admits thirteen and the Christian section twenty. Preference is given to those who come from a distance.

The model school is a complete high school and is considered to be one of the best schools in the country. It is the practice school for the college and an attempt has been made to maintain it as a demonstration school in point of buildings, equipment and staffing. Until recently it had small classes providing opportunity for easy observation. It has a staff of selected teachers and up to the primary grades it is staffed with trained graduates. It has a full-time headmaster and is in every way an independent unit ; but the principal of the college exercises the powers of an inspector over it and so it is directly under his control.

In so far as it prepares candidates for the Licentiate in Teaching degree examination, the Training College is affiliated with the University of Madras. The relation of affiliation to the University is governed by definite laws and regulations. A college requesting affiliation is first inspected by a commission appointed by the Syndicate of the University. The Commission tries to satisfy itself as to whether the college is under the management of a regularly constituted governing body on which, except in the case of a government institution, the teaching staff is represented. They see if the character and qualifications of the teaching staff and the conditions governing their appointment and tenure are such as to make due provision for the courses of instruction to be undertaken by the college and if there is a due proportion between the number of the instructional staff and the number of students under instruction They see that the buildings in which the college is to be located are suitable, and that each lecture room is well lighted and ventilated. They see whether in the college buildings there is accommodation adequate enough to the number and strength of the class as regards room, floor space and cubic space. They satisfy themselves that provision will be made in conformity with the laws for the residence, in the college or in lodgings approved by the

college, of students not residing with their parents or duly recognized guardians. They insist upon providing adequate supervision and physical welfare for students and see that due provision has been, or will be, made for a library, laboratory or museum, as the case may require. Due provision has to be made for the residence of the head of the college and some members of the teaching staff in or near the college, or near the place provided for the residence of students. The financial resources of the college should be such as to make due provision for its continued maintenance, and the college should run no unfair competition with other institutions of its kind. On the basis of the report of the Commission, the Syndicate, in consultation with the Council of Affiliated Colleges, will proceed to grant affiliation. The affiliated college should promise to abide by the laws of the University and to report all changes in staff and to submit other periodical returns. Over and above this initial inspection, the Syndicate is authorized to make periodical inspection which comes once every quinquennium.[1]

The teaching staff of the college is given wide scope to influence the course of studies, the examinations and other academic matters through sending members to the governing bodies of the university. The principal is an ex-officio member of the Academic Council which decides courses of studies, textbooks, examinations and all other academic matters. The instructional staff elects one of its members to represent it on this council. Any honorary readers appointed from the staff also have a seat in it. The Academic Council elects some members to the Syndicate, Senate and the Council of Affiliated Colleges, and through it either the principal or members of the staff in the Academic Council can enter the above mentioned bodies. The college staff also sends representatives to the Board of Studies which prescribes courses, and to the Board of Examiners for the Licentiate in Teaching degree examination, which sets

1. Laws of the University. Chap. XVIII Calendar 1926-27, pp. 179-183.

papers and conducts that examination. Through these bodies, the opinion of the instructional staff can influence teacher-training and its ideals in the university.

CHAPTER IV.

Suggested Improvements—Administration.

The amalgamation of the Trivandrum Training College with the Arts College may have been dictated by considerations of economy and expediency; but it is a retrograde step which cannot be justified either by the principles or by the history of teacher-training. The training college was founded as part of a forward movement in education inaugurated towards the end of the first decade, of this century. A well-equipped institution to train teachers, was felt to be a desideratum, in a country with a rapidly expanding educational system. Plans were laid on an elaborate scale. Only the imminent need for starting the institution led it to be housed in the model school buildings which were never looked upon as its permanent habitation. Perhaps the new buildings planned were on too large a scale but so were some of the high schools whose construction was begun as part of the new scheme which envisaged the future education of the country on generous lines. It was only the war years, that first lengthened the program and then delayed the completion of the buildings, thereby causing the first flush of enthusiasm to die down.

As the years passed by and the buildings consumed more and more money, people began to look at them from the standpoint of the lean years that followed the World War. Public men began to complain that a great deal of money was being thrown away on wasteful projects. Meanwhile the cynosure of educational interest had changed from the schools to the colleges. The first fruits of the

school-leaving certificate system were being gathered in, in the shape of an unprecedented number of students seeking admission to the colleges, which could not admit them all. New colleges were opened and more room found in old colleges. The parents of the students were loudly clamoring for more accommodation in the colleges, for otherwise their children would have to go out of the State in pursuit of a collegiate education at great risk to health, physical and moral, in unknown surroundings and at great expense. For a while the government toyed with the idea of justifying expenditure on the new buildings for the training college, by holding out prospects of opening intermediate classes in them when they should be completed. If they had done so, the situation would have approximated to a phase in the history of teacher-training in the United States, where, "There was a movement to combine with established teacher-training institutions the first two years of a college of liberal arts.....the so-called 'junior college' curriculum. College going students can be induced to attend for a while a local institution..... Parents are pleased both at the economy and at having their children at home..... Under the present crowded conditions at the majority of state universities, the resort to well distributed normal schools appeals to the uninitiated as an obvious method of relief..... The driving spirit of any successful professional institution lies in the unity of aim and purpose....., experience has made clear beyond question that a sound school for teachers must have its own.....staff of teachers, its own buildings and equipment, and its own independent budget and administration for the reasons that hold good of every other form of advanced professional training".[1] If this had happened it would not have been so bad for teacher training as it is now, for the junior college will still have been under the control of the training college.

But it was not to be, since the principal of the

1. Carnegie Foundation for the advancement of Teaching, 19th Annual Report, 1921, p. 83.

training college left the service just then and the ascendency which would have been the training college's under him or another like him had to be surrendered, since no one professionally qualified could be found to take his place. The government fully believed that by transferring the head of the arts department of the academic college to be principal of the training college, they were not merely providing a head for the latter institution. but paving the way for the solution of the vexed problem of college accommodation.

The *fait accompli* is often taken to be a justification for any course of action. Once accomplished and found working, the onus of proving undesirability rests on those who would upset the new arrangement. But the subsumption of the training college under the leadership of the arts college has been defended on the ground that two such institutions within the same premises cannot very well get on without conflicts except under unity of control. Such an argument can only be a plea for separate premises, if unification is found to be educationally unsound. The separation of premises can be carried out without undue expense. The two institutions are absolutely distinct in staff equipment and organization, and are housed in separate units except for the lunch rooms in the lowest tier of the compound which though distinct for the two, are yet crowded together. Below this are ten acres of land registered in the name of the training college for playing fields.[1] If these lands were only utilized as playing fields for the two institutions, the portion of the compound between the two colleges, which is now enclosed to make a gymnasium for the arts college, can be made over to the training college, a wall built between the two and each college made distinct. Adjoining the training college is the arts college hostel premises which are at present rented but a proposal is afoot to acquire the land for the use of the college. If this scheme were put through, the training college can be reimbursed in that direction for the land it has lost to its sister institution.

1. Report for 1924-25, page 28.

The way is therefore open for such readjustments if the amalgamation of the two colleges is found to be educationally unsound. Economy could not be pleaded in extenuation of the throwing together of the two colleges. To save on the teachers' college is to save on one of the vital services of education. The expenditure on teacher-training should not be considered in and of itself, but as a charge on education as a whole. Institutions where teachers are prepared have come to be considered in their national character, ever since the instance of Prussia showed the importance of schools in creating a national spirit and demonstrating the part played by the normal schools in preparing the teachers who would awaken such a spirit.[1] Teacher-training has therefore come to be looked upon as a State function.[2] It is well that it is so considered. The state control of professional schools maintains uniform standards, enables professional schools to come into more intimate and intelligent relations with the public schools which they serve, effects economy in management and enables each individual school to become more definite in aim in the preparation of the teacher.[3] The more education passes into private hands, the more need there is for the administration of a state teachers' college to maintain high standards. The school for teachers is the immediate instrument for providing a given number and quality of public servants to discharge the main collective obligation of the present generation to its successor.[4] Besides, the expenses in Travancore are largely due to the stipends paid to students under training, who as teachers in the schools would have to be paid the same amount in any event. The expenditure on the salaries of the staff is nothing more than what is spent on one of the departments of the other colleges. The principal is paid the salary of a professor. With a whole-time principal, the vice-principal is headmaster of the model

1. Agnew-Ibid. p. 33.
2. Agnew-Ibid. pp. 1-50.
3. Agnew-Ibid. p. 179.
4. Bulletin No. 14, p. 87.

school. The three senior lecturers are in the grade of assistant professors and the five lecturers are a little above the rank of tutors. The argument for economy cannot therefore be substantiated on the score of extravagance.

The amalgamation goes against the trend of modern educational practice which has been the emancipation of teacher-training institutions from association with academic institutions. This is true for many of the states of the American commonwealth. It is true of Vermont.[1] In New York the struggle was to get the training centers away from the academies and by 1870 the struggle was won for the normal schools.[2] "The failure of the early private school in preparing teachers seems to have been largely due to the double aim in attaching a teacher-training department to a school that was maintaining an academic course of study. Defects inherent in the plan of engrafting a department for training teachers on any other seminary—are the making of the teachers' department a secondary object, the associating of the pupils of the department with others by whom they are diverted from the intention of teaching and are precluded from the cultivation of the requisite *esprit de corps* and the impossibility of giving the best direction to the studies of the pupils, are more especially of allowing them sufficient opportunity for practice."[3] In Travancore we seem to be proceeding in the opposite direction by bringing a well organized and independent teachers college under an arts college.

The present position of the training college bears no resemblance to the training departments of universities. The establishment of such departments in English [4] and American universities is itself due to the triumph of the professional idea in teacher training. It was formerly believed that provided a person knew his subject he was qualified to teach

1. Steele-A Study of Teacher Training in Vermont, Chap. I.
2. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 33-32,
3. Agnew-Ibid, pp. 50-61.
4. Lance Jones-*Op. Cit.* p. 105.

it; and as a consequence university graduates proceeded to teach in the secondary schools without any further training. With the growth of educational science it came to be recognized that more was required in a teacher than mere knowledge of the subject, and that he should be equipped in addition with the technique of holding a class together and of presenting the subject matter from the point of view of the learner; he should be equipped, too, with some of the broader ideals of the profession.[1] Bagley holds that the emergence of this idea is due to the growing universalization of secondary education. When the secondary school ceased to be a selective institution which eliminated the pupil who could not master the standardized subject matter, methods of presenting subject matter to all, and of adapting curricula to each, became important and carried with them the necessity for specially trained teachers. The first response to this need came with the appointment of professors of education in the colleges and universities.[2]

When Mr. Henry Sharp of the Indian Educational Service was deputed to visit the St. Louis Exposition in May 1904, and to attend the meetings of the National Education Association, he found this tendency developing in America. He says[3]: "It may be noted that there is a strong tendency in America toward the complete disassociation of secondary teachers' training from that of elementary teachers, and the placing of the former task in the hands of the universities. This tendency has to some extent expressed itself in the founding of chairs or departments of pedagogy, in the universities of Iowa, Missouri, etc." Strongly influenced by Professor Luckey's book 'The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States and by the example of the University of California,

1. Kent-Higher Education in America.
2. Professors of Education and their Academic Colleagues, p. 4. reprinted from The Mathematics Teacher, May, 1930.
3. The Training of Secondary Teachers, pp. 89-93.

he argued (1907) for university departments of education as the best means of giving effect to the then recent decision of the Government of India to make the training for graduate teachers a university course culminating in a degree. Struck with the great contribution made by university departments to the science of education, Sir Michael Sadler wished to create such a department in Calcutta University. He says (1919)[1]: "The new movement in the educational thought of the west has had its chief source in social and economic changes. But its implications have been made clear, its presuppositions critically examined and its aims studied by the work of the departments of education in a great number of universities European and American and the books they have produced. The chief reason why these departments have been so fruitful is, in a teaching university, the student of education is thrown into contact with others who are investigating problems in psychology, in economics, in history and in various branches of science including medicine. All these students have a direct bearing upon the problems of education. In a centre at which all are represented the study of education is stimulated and guided by many converging influences which bear upon the different aspects of this many sided subject, suggest new lines of enquiry, indicate methods of scientific investigation and criticise any tendency to rely upon ill-founded assumptions or to adopt hurried generalizations. Done under these conditions—the work of the university departments of education has been of fundamental importance in its influence upon the course of legislation, upon educational administration and upon public opinion." Both Mr. Sharp and Dr. Sadler hoped that they were copying the model of Columbia University. Mr. Sharp said[2] that by the Government of India declaration of March 1904, "presumably an institution of the type of Columbia University Teachers College is contemplated." Dr. Sadler said, "What Teachers

1. C. U. C. R. Vol. V. pp. 73-74.
2. Sharp-*Op. Cit.* p. 89.

College is to Columbia University, the new department of education might eventually become to the University of Calcutta." [1]

But neither Mr. Sharp nor Dr. Sadler would take Teachers College to be the school of education of Columbia University in the narrow sense of the word, and the Arts College of Trivandrum is not a university. Teachers College of Columbia grew up independently and was a well developed unit before it joined Columbia University. It was founded in 1888 (1887?) and merged with Columbia in 1898, though it still retains its broad autonomy with its own board of trustees and separate-budget.[2] It is by no means merged in the university though there is an exchange of credits. In fact Teachers College is intermediate between a normal school and a university school of education.[3] Some of the university schools of education, as in Harvard University, stress their separateness from the university academic schools by granting different degrees.[4] The more an institution for the training of teachers turns its face away from the academic and toward the professional side, the more valuable it becomes to the community. While recognizing the great service that university training departments are rendering to education, it cannot be denied that there are several aspects to the training of teachers which, as Mr. E. Biss remarks,[5] are not academic in character. Such are "the technique of school and class organization, the use of the blackboard and of illustration generally, the ability to maintain discipline in the every day conditions of school life, and the management of school hostels." Hence he argues for making teacher training a State, instead of a university, function. Though the University of Madras has no chair of education, the three

1. C. U. C. R. Vol V. p. 80.
2. Caullery-Universities and Scientific Life in the United States, p 198.
3. Judd in Kent: Higher Education in America, p.173.
4. Kent-Higher Education in America, p. 173.
5. C. U. C. R. Vol. 3. p. 12.

training colleges—Teachers College, Saidapet, Lady Willingdon's Training College for Women, and St. Christopher's Christian Training College for Women—are within a ten mile radius and are constituent parts of the university. They are therefore able to pool their resources in staff and equipment, to use the university library, and to carry out other cooperative enterprises. The Arts College at Trivandrum is 600 miles away from the university centre, and to be associated with it yields none of the benefits that might come of association with a university nearby.

The analogy is not even to the schools of education in the American liberal arts colleges. These colleges established schools of education for the same reason that the universities did, and though they are subject to the standardizing influence of such voluntary bodies as the regional associations of colleges, and the requirements of the services for which they prepared, they are degree granting institutions, not subject to external examinations. In them education is an essential part of the arts course which fits candidates for the provisional teachers certificate. In Dickinson College (formed 1783, Carlisle, Pa.), it is possible to elect educational theory and practice during the third and fourth years of college and to graduate with a minor in the subject.[1] In Franklin and Marshall College (Lancaster, Pa, founded 1787) one may graduate with education as a major and be eligible for the Pennsylvania College provisional certificate.[2] I have singled out these two colleges since I have visited them; but in varying degrees the statements are true of most of the liberal arts colleges. Mr. Sharp suggested, in 1909, that the American example should be followed and classes in education should be opened in the chief arts colleges of each province.[3] Mr. Stark suggested the same plan to the Calcutta University Committee[4] and

1. Bulletin 1929-30, p. 26.
2. Bulletin p. 33.
3. The Training of Secondary Teachers p. 104.
4. C. U. C. R., Vol. 3, p. 18.

so did Mr. Chakravarti.[1] The only serious attempt of the kind was made in 1917 in the Madras presidency when as an experimental measure a training class was attached to St. Joseph's College (Arts) at Trichinopoly and twenty graduate students were admitted to it.[2] If the experiment proved successful more of such classes were to have been opened throughout the province; but it was not a success and the class was closed in 1927. The great danger of training classes in affiliated arts colleges, subject to an external examination, is that they would stress the theoretical aspects of teacher-training to the prejudice of its practical bearing.[3] Therefore, the only available precedent in the country goes against the amalgamation of the training college with the arts college.

If Mr. Sharp visited the United States now, he would discover that the tendency is no longer for the professional preparation of secondary teachers to be entrusted to the universities alone; but to be shared by the Teachers Colleges. The normal schools are developing into teachers colleges, most of which are degree granting institutions.[4] There were ninety-two degree granting Teachers Colleges in the United States of America in 1923, of which eighty-two exercised their power to grant degrees. The lengthening of the residence requirements from two to four years has enabled the teachers colleges to take over some of the work of the liberal arts type, to give a cultural background for the teachers, to enable their graduates to compete successfully with the graduates of universities and liberal arts colleges for work in secondary schools. The Teachers College at Montclair, New Jersey, has gone so far as to concentrate its efforts exclusively on the training of secondary school teachers.[5]

1. C. U. C. R., Vol. 7. pp. 361-62.
2. Duncan & Mackenzie-Training of Teachers, p. 31.
3. Kent-Higher Education in America, pp, 171-72.
4. Lance Jones: *Op, Cit*, pp, 311-315-Yearbook of The American Association of Teachers Colleges 1924-p, 75.
5. Bagley in Educational Yoarbook of the International Institute 1927, pp, 589-92.

The University Quinquennial Commission, after visiting the Trivandrum Training College and going into the whole question, advised the separation of the two institutions and the placing of the Training College under a specially qualified principal.

There is a definite place in the economy of a teacher training institution, for the principal—a definite, difficult and delicate part to play which will tax the talents of an able man. "The routine duties of a president have already passed into the hands of registrars and faculty committees. This is justified by two considerations—as institutions grow and become more complex, the head's time should be set free to study policies with reference to comparison, observation and reflection. He should be lifted above detail and needless worry to be the inspiring power and illuminating interpreter behind the whole organization. Besides, a president should always work through principles instead of coming into touch with concrete cases if he is to maintain a reputation for fairness and impartiality in his dealings".[1]

"There are two types of duties in school—one largely mechanical that belong to the general manager and business man in distinction from the educator. There is another dealing with instruction and the formation of good habits, that are technical in character, calling for skill as educator, which of the two shall dominate. The mechanical are but the means for the professional which are the end. A principal should therefore be closely identified with instruction, with supervision. He should control policies, study principles of institutional procedure by outside observation, comparison and reflection..... In two schools, it was apparent that the presidents had exercised a strong influence on classroom work. In others there was little evidence of constructive supervision. This is due largely to the fact that the presidents are so occupied with administrative details and problems that other professional duties have been neglected. The appointment of a business manager in the general office

1. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 273-74.

of the board should help correct this condition. Further steps should be taken to relieve the presidents of routine clerical work so that they may devote themselves to the professional supervision of their schools".[1]

The Arts College is a large institution and will require the complete attention of a whole-time principal. We have given the general reasons why a teacher-training institution should have a principal of its own to devote his whole attention to a certain special class of problems. A more detailed analysis of his duties will convince one of their number, importance and insistence. The principal of the Teachers College at Trivandrum has at least six classes of duties. First, he has the administrative duties that devolve upon the head of a college—admissions, collection of fees, discipline, supervision of staff, oversight of student residence, supplies, l brary, catalogues, calendars, care of buildings and premises, control of menial staff, athletics and social life. Secondly, he has to organize and supervise instruction, to arrange for time-tables, practice teaching instruction, examinations, syllabi, diplomas, appliances and aids and to conduct the trained teachers' certificate examination. Thirdly, he has duties connected with the university—attendance at the meetings of the Senate, Academic Council, Board of Studies, Board of Examiners, service on inspection committees, and supply of information and returns to the university. Fourthly, he has duties arising out of relationships with the government—budget, securing expansion, deciding questions of educational policy, giving opinions on educational matters, answers to questions in the Legislative Council. Fifthly, he has duties connected with school education. He is inspector of the model school and is responsible for the efficiency of the staff and instruction in that institution. He has a part in the conduct of the school final examination, and is head of the educational bureau and museum. Lastly, he has duties connected with the public, having to take part in public

1. Hill: Legislative Control of Normal Schools, pp. 112 and108.

meetings, welfare work, boy scout organization, and to contribute to professional journals. The case for the separation of the two colleges is therefore complete.

CHAPTER V.

Suggested Improvements—Admission, Period of Training, Preliminary Education.

Unlike the liberal arts colleges where the cultural aspect of education is still strong and the aim of education is fulfilled in the culture attained, in the professional college the aim is realized only when the product of the college is placed and renders efficient service. In the arts colleges the laws of demand and supply work un-controlled. If a college education does not pay, and college-educated youths remain unabsorbed in life vocations, its reputation in the eyes of parents and students falls and fewer and fewer students enroll. In this way supply is adjusted to demand. But in a professional college the supply can be easily controlled with a view to meeting the demand, and should be so controlled in order to ensure good working conditions in the profession. In so comparatively small a place as Travancore, with its system of quasi-in-service education, it should be easy to forecast the number of teachers needed from year to year. and to restrict admission to the teachers' college to the number required for the needs of the teaching service.

The government order of 1923-24, by increasing the number of graduates trained every year, was able rapidly to man the schools with trained teachers. During the past six years, the college has trained almost every graduate in the department. The increase in numbers admitted to the training college has also diminished the cost per head. But the present rate cannot be kept up; there are not enough

teachers in the service. The time has come to adopt another policy. We understand that Cochin is already planning to start a training college of its own. It had already proved restive. The quota of seven allotted to it annually in the admissions to the Training College at Trivandrum was not adequate to meet the needs of the service. Accordingly, five teachers have been deputed every year to the Teachers College at Saidapet over and above the number of young women sent to the Lady Willingdon College. Therefore there will be no more Cochin students in the college. Since we are about to exhaust all the untrained graduates in the service, the time has come to substitute preservice education for in-service training. If preservice education is decided upon, the necessity to forecast demand becomes of great importance.

There are two aspects to the demand for teachers in any country. The normal replacement turnover in the teaching force has to be made good, and provision has to be made for possible expansion in the educational system. We cannot expect to see a rapid advance of education in the near future. The cry now is not for more education but for a different kind, not quantity but quality appears to be the demand. The tide of expansion that flowed strongly two decades ago, is already beginning to ebb. In the year 1929 for the first time, the attractive power of the colleges began appreciably to fail.[1] As in the case of a boiling kettle the state of the pressure is measured in the spout and the lid, the movement of numbers in the colleges must indicate the state of the popular demand for English education. The numbers in the Vernacular and the English middle and high schools are increasing, but that is due to the momentum of the past and to the growth of population. English education in the country appears to have reached its high-water mark, unless some new force or new impulse begins to make itself felt. The Christian missions have become financially

1. Report 1928-29, p. 32; also Report of the Director of Public Instruction Madras, 1929-30.

embarrassed. The government feels that it has gone too far. The movement to help backward and depressed classes and the communal educational undertakings may for a while make for an expansion in education and offset the weakness of other agencies. However, everything considered, education may be taken to have reached a stationary state, and it is quite right and proper if we confine our attention in matters of teacher-supply to questions of replacement turnover.

Several formulae have been devised to determine the number of new teachers required for any school system. Some of them place the percentage turnover very high, others rather low. It is certain that no one formula will suit all cases; but each will have to be considered in relation to the conditions of the place in which it is being applied. Writing in 1917, Bagley assumed that the annual turnover in the United States was one-seventh of the teaching population.[1] Writing in 1927 the same authority computed the teaching population of the United States at one million and the number of new teachers required at 120000 per year.[2] This works out at twelve per cent of the total teaching population. These ratios are certainly determined by the character of the teaching population which in the United States is made up almost entirely of women who have to resign on marriage.[3] This loses for the teaching force from one-fifth to one-fourth of its entire numbers.[4] Consequently the average "life" of a teacher in the United States was not more than four years.[5] It is much higher now. In the cities, it may be a little longer, "probably between eight and ten years".[6] Such a heavy wastage would certainly require a high replacement ratio. Dr. Bagley himself brings down the ratio to ten per cent

1. Bagley-Curricula for the Professional Preparation of Teachers.
2. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927-p 582.
3. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14, p. 136.
4. Ibid. p. 143.
5. School and Society, January 1929, p. 162.
6. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14, p. 136.

when dealing with negro teachers.[1] Higher ratios have been suggested. Smith puts the ratio for Louisiana at seventeen per cent.[2] The reasons he gives for so high a ratio are the short period of service of the teachers who have not had much specialized training, the low salary and the tempting openings in other fields of a newly developing country, which lead to migrations from the teacher's profession. Such higher ratios are not required in the Indian scene where teaching service is mostly government service and is sought for its permanence and security of tenure. The teachers are mostly men. The teacher's service, status and salary compare well with such conditions in other walks of life. Besides, we are dealing with an old country, where nothing sensational ever happens in the way of new openings for talent. Life has settled down to well worn and beaten paths.

We shall be right therefore to choose the lower rather than the higher ratios in regard to teacher replacements. The English Board of Education Circular No. 573 of 1907 assumed a ratio of 4·5 per cent, that of 1915, 5·2 per cent; Circular 1908, of 1915, 6 per cent; Circular 1124 of 1919, 5 per cent. The "Report of the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for the public Elementary Schools" (p. 29) takes the annual need of teachers to be 8,000 where 100,000 are employed, or 5 per cent. McKenzie[3] assumes the wastage ratio to be 6 per cent in the case of vernacular-school teachers in the United Province of India. Buckingham has developed a formula[4] which seems to be applicable to the Indian situation. He says that the annual number of new teachers needed may be arrived at by dividing the total number of teachers in service by the number of years each one is likely to be in service. In Travancore teachers are

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, p 583.
2. Smith-Training High School Teachers for Louisiana, p. 67.
3. Duncan and Mckenzie-Training of Teachers-p. 33.
4. Supply and Demand in Teacher Training-Bureau of Educational Research Monographs No. 4.

compelled to retire when they are fifty-five. The average age of one hundred graduate teachers, discovered by actual computation from date of birth and date of entry into service as given in the Quarterly Civil List is 24·54. The total number of teachers in the service of the government according to existing sanctions[1] is three hundred and seventy. The total number of graduate teachers in the service of the government according to the Report of the Education Department for 1928-29 (p. 248) was three hundred and fifty-six, and those in the private schools numbered three hundred and thirty-six. The total number of graduate teachers may be taken to be seven hundred. Allowing for the later age at which teachers enter the service of the private schools, we may take the average age of entry to service as twenty-five. So each graduate teacher is likely to be in service for thirty years. Seven hundred divided by thirty gives 23·3. An actual count of the new graduate teachers appointed in the government schools during the period of 1919-1930 gives us a total of 171 and an average of 14·25 for each year, the range being between two and thirty-five. An average of eleven a year at least should be made for the private schools; and a total of twenty-five new appointments every year may be safely assumed. If we accept the five per cent of the English Board of Education, thirty-five new graduate teachers will be required to be trained every year. If we adopt the Buckingham formula twenty-five will be sufficient. Thirty every year will be a liberal estimate of the annual need for graduate teachers. If the government will only keep careful records of new teachers appointed, trained teachers not teaching, teachers deceased, retired, and the average period of service for each teacher, as Buckingham suggests,[2] we can have a correct forecast of the number of teachers needed year after year. The present intention of training fifty each year cannot be maintained in all years. It did not do great mischief since it was understood

1. Quarterly Civil List 1930-pp. 112-116.
2. *Op. Cit.* p. 161.

that some who were not in the service came for preservice training. Ten places were reserved for such men and of the ten places earmarked for women six may be taken to have come from the service. So fourteen came for preservice education, seven came from Cochin, and twenty-nine were trained who were in the service, which was right according to our estimate. But when the system of admitting non-stipendiaries was dropped and enough women conld not be had to fill the places reserved for them, all except the seven from Cochin came from Travancore service. Forty-three graduate teachers trained every year is more than the number wanted for Travancore. Therefore the government order prescribing the number of graduates admitted to the college should either be adopted in its entirety or, if that is not possible, it should be revised.

The situation in regard to the under-graduate teachers is more serious. There are one thousand five hundred and ninety-two undergraduate teachers in the country, of whom five hundred and thirty-six have been trained while the remaining 1056 are yet to be trained.[1] If something could be done to work off this lag, the ideals of preservice education and a trained teacher for each teaching situation would be within our reach. Till 1924-25 the college trained only 24 undergraduates. In that year the number was raised to fifty, ten places being reserved for women and ten more open for non-stipendiaries. Since the women's undergraduate training school was abolished, the ten seats reserved for them did not increase the effective number trained. That was only fifteen. Out of these fifteen, ten or more, some of the women being non-stipendiaries, came without stipends. If we apply Buckingham's formula many more must be trained before even the needs of the replacement turnover are met. We should look upon the undergraduate as entering service earlier, though we have no data to go upon as they are not gazetted officers and their date of service is not entered in

1. Figures computed from the Report of 1928-29 and the Quarterly Civil List p. 248.

the Civil List. A scrutiny of their published history of service will enable us to judge the date; but 22 years may be taken to be a fair average age. They have also to retire when they are fifty-five. The divisor is therefore thirty-three. One thousand five hundred and ninety-two divided by thirty-three gives us about forty-eight. This is the lowest estimate. If we take the British ratio, the number requiring to be trained is eighty. Between fifty and seventy-five have to be trained each year for annual replacement and to meet new needs. Besides, the one thousand and fifty-six untrained teachers have to be accounted for. Unless they are somehow disposed of, they will constitute a kind of motionless pool in which the new teacher will disappear.[1] New teachers will have to wait years, until all their seniors are trained, before their turn can come. Meanwhile they will have learned wrong methods of teaching and will have become almost untrainable. Therefore over and above certifying those beyond thirty-five, special facilities should be provided for the others to secure the Untrained Teachers Certificate.[2] Summer sessions may be conducted and every inducement should be given them to secure the equivalence of training.

But many more will have to be trained each year than are admitted at present to the Teachers' College at Trivandrum. Plans were made to create a training class in one of the district high schools but this scheme broke down because of questions raised as to the relation of the new school to the teachers college. The question was whether such a school standing alone and operated in connection with a high school could be efficient. If it should be brought under the control of the teachers college, had that institution the necessary machinery for effective supervision ?

The alternative is to increase the number of undergraduates admitted to the teachers college. The recently

1. Report on the Training of Public Elementary School Teachers, p. 59.
2. Report of the Curricula Revision Committee p. 15.

appointed under-graduate teachers may be brought to the College in groups of one hundred each year. This number should not prove hard for the Training College to cope with since it had to deal with two classes before the period of training was reduced to one year. There can be no objection on the score of accommodation since the lecture halls can accommodate one hundred and fifty students at a time. There will be some more expenditure than now on account of the purchase of books and appliances. Double the amount will be required for the payment of stipends; but the advantage of having well-trained teachers justifies paying the price. The real difficulty is in providing practice facilities, a question which we shall take up in its proper place.

The training of teachers has a dual nature and consists of two parts—the basic academic foundation plus the professional preparation. The second without the first is like asking for bricks without straw. Method is only matter in teachable form. For this reason those who are genuinely interested in the training of teachers have concerned themselves with the subject-matter attainments of the future teacher. There are four ways of ensuring the substantive preparation of the teacher. The teachers colleges may insist that the teacher for training come to them with a certain standard of academic achievement. Or, having selected the teacher, his academic preparation may be arranged for in academic institutions. Or, the training institution itself may undertake to complete the future teacher's general education. Or, finally, the academic institution may also provide the necessary professional preparation. Any one of these methods, or a combination of all or some, may be resorted to by training authorities to secure the academic background for professional preparation.

Minimum academic qualifications have been laid down for admission to certain training institutions. Canada insists on a student completing his academic training before being

admitted to the professional course.[1] It has been easier to insist on this in the case of high-school teachers, in whom the need for professional preparation was recognized only very recently. The situation arose out of the European habit of looking upon secondary education as selective, leading the way to university entrance. Naturally, therefore, university graduates taught in the high schools and prepared the pupils for the university. This example for a long while dominated American practice in the matter.[2] No one can teach in the better high schools of the United States without four years of post high-school education, either in a college or in a training institution.[3] In England any four-year college student, who at the end of his third year had taken his degree in honors, can transfer himself to a professional school for a year's training, on the completion of which he will be regarded as having qualified to teach in a secondary school in the subject of his honors degree.[4] In Germany, too, four years of college plus two years of practical preparation in a secondary school is the minimum qualification to teach in the secondary schools.[5] The Indian practice is consistent with what obtains the rest of the world over. Four years of college with one year's professional preparation are the minimum qualifications to teach in the secondary school.

The Indian graduate is well equipped to teach high school so far as subject-matter knowledge goes. The only defect is that the disparity between the standard of college education and school education in any one subject is so great that the young teacher does not see the relation of the two. He often shoots over the heads of his pupils and fails to adapt the instruction to their capacities and previous

1. Kent-Higher Education in America-p. 171.
2. Kent-*Op. Cit*, Chap. 6.
3. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927. p. 579.
4. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, p.488; Lance Jones, *Op. Cit.* p. 123.
5. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, p.562

knowledge. This is partly due to the defect of textbook writers who have failed to carry over to the lower schools the simpler elements of difficult subjects, thus failing to perform the introductory and preparatory functions of early education. Partly it is due to the defect in the Indian environment which does not provide enough concrete applications of great scientific and social truths so that the pupil may read as he runs. In the west the intricate scientific truths, which often evaded the capacities of the average adult at the time of their discovery, are being learnt by boys at school today and their practical applications manipulated by them outside of school. The future of Indian education lies with college graduates who would bring their scholarship into the schools and raise the boys gradually in knowledge and power. Thus Indian education will gradually reach higher and higher levels.

The academic qualifications of elementry teachers, though seemingly uniform all over the world, differ as the levels of national systems differ and in proportion to the care with which the rudimentary academic attainment is nourished and developed during the training course. Everywhere graduation from the high school is looked upon as the minimum academic qualification for elementary teachers. But this means very different levels of attainment in different countries. The German school is a thirteen year school and the high-school graduate is at least nineteen years old. Besides the German school year has two hundred and forty days. Compared with this, the American high-school graduate with twelve years' school work of a hundred and eighty days each year, should have finished the sophomore year in college to reach the standard of his German rival.[2] The English entrant to a training college is also eighteen and has spent most of his time between twelve and sixteen in a secondary school passing the examination qualifying for admission to a training college which he enters at eighteen,

1. Travancore University Committee Report, pp. 240-243.
2. Alexander-Training of Elementary School Teachers, p. 248.

if it is a two year course and at seventeen if it is a four-year course. In the latter case his success in the first examination should be with such distinction as to exempt him from the university matriculation.[1]

In Travancore also, admission to the undergraduate class of the training college is open only to those who have passed the school-leaving certificate examination. This represents eleven years of school with one hundred and eighty days in the school year. While the prolonged schooling, with the longer school year, makes the German high-school graduate superior to his American compeer in the factual command of general academic school subjects, the latter has often had intimate contact with practical pursuits during his school career and may have spent the long summer vacation in some form of gainful work. The American high-school graduate is therefore not over schooled but retains his power of initiative and is acquainted to a large extent with the practical realities of life. He is not of the same intellectualized character as the German who is inclined to abstract forms of thinking.[2] Sir Michael Sadler has attempted a comparative estimate of the merits of the school products of different nations, basing his conclusion on the vast experience he has had with students of different lands.[3] He is struck by the many sided culture of the German and the practical ability of the American, which may perhaps fall short in intellectual attainments along academic lines of his German and English contemproaries. He has felt the beauty, culture and intellectual distinction of the French, the workmanlike skill of the Scandinavians, the political experience of the Italians, the international outlook of the Swiss and the national consciousness of the Spaniards. The common and distinguishing features of the many peoples of Great Britain, he finds in the ability to compromise and in ripeness of judgment. The Chinese and Japanese appeared

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, p.47.
2. Alexander-*Op. Cit.* pp. 248-249.
3. Teachers College Record, October 1930, pp. 4-7.

to him as less oriental and more modern than common report had it; while he was impressed with the intellectual power and philosophical insight of the Indian student.

The Indian student idles away the long summer vacation and makes very little practical use of the leisure that it provides. His absence of skill in practical pursuits and his theoretical and literary tendencies are well known. But even in the latter his standing is not so high as that of the European school product. The European pupil learns many languages, ancient and modern, while the Indian learns only English and his mother tongue.[1] The fact of his being educated through a foreign language should be taken into account, in rating the Indian pupil's high school achievement. When the European or American pupil leaves the elementary grades he has mastered the tools of learning, whereas the Indian high school pupil is still fumbling his way through English, which is his one instrument of learning. This shows itself in the type of text-books used in the college. The American student in the junior college years uses textbooks which the Indian student uses only in the honors classes.

Though high-school graduation is the minimum for admission to a training college, in most countries by a process of selection and competition only the best among high-school graduates are admitted. In times past in the United States, all and sundry were admitted to teaching posts,[2] but now plans are being developed for picking and choosing. "The Report on the Professional Education of Teachers in Cleveland" suggests (page 1) that admission to the training college be reserved to high-school graduates in the upper two thirds, of the graduating classes. In England admission to the training college is by the secondary-school examination, called the first examination,[3] but a college of good repute may have from four to eight applicants or even

1. Nelson Fraser-Furlough Studies.
2. Curricula designed for the professional preparation of teachers.
3. Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* Chap. 3.

more, for every place it has to offer. In such cases, only the best are selected.[1] In France the *brevet elementaire* is used as a competitive entrance examination, only the highest in the list being admitted.[2] In Travancore, no such attempt is made to select the better-class pupils for the teaching profession. Everywhere those who enter the training colleges are said to be on a lower level of attainment than those who enter the liberal arts colleges,[3] but in Travancore this evil practice is regularized. There are two kinds of school-leaving-certificates:—one admits to a university course; the other admits to the public services. In the case of the former, the attainment required in the academic subjects is higher than in the latter. Teaching as one of the public services gets the holders of the second class certificates.

It is when we come to the arrangements made for the preliminary education of the future teacher that training methods in Travancore compare most unfavorably with those in other lands. In both England and Scotland, the intending teacher is caught young and provided with maintenance allowances, scholarships, and bursaries. His education is carried to the end of the secondary level in secondary schools or in a pupil teacher centre.[4] In France the future teacher leaves the elementary school at twelve or thirteen after passing a simple leaving examination. He then enters a higher elementary school or a *course complementaire* where he continues a purely academic education until sixteen or seventeen, selecting the general course of studies. The admission to the higher elementary school is by competition. The education is free to all, but for those who are too poor to maintain themselves scholarships are available.[5]

1. Educational Year book of the International Institute 1927, p. 472.
2. Ibid p. 505.
3. Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* p. 82; Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, p. 585.
4. Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* Chap. 3.
5. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, pp. 501—503.

Impressed with such arrangements for the preliminary education of teachers, witnesses before the Calcutta University Commission[1] frankly suggested imitating the European examples. Promising young men who may become good teachers should be provided with scholarships to study in special classes in the colleges. Mr. C. H. Chakravarti suggested pupil teacher centres and Mr. W. E. Griffiths suggested bursaries.[2] These suggestions were accepted by the Commissioners and incorporated in their final report.[3] Special classes in colleges for intending teachers have been conducted in Goldsmiths College in London and have not proved a success. Such students are considered less important, they have no incentive to work and they have but a lopsided education.[4]

The University of London allows training college students to prepare for its intermediate or degree examinations as external students.[5] In American universities, the system of credits makes it possible for the student in the school of education to improve his general academic standing. For instance, a student in the George Peabody College for Teachers may take as much as one-third of his work in Vanderbilt University on the opposite side of the street[6]. Exchange of credits is allowed between Teachers College and Columbia University. The University of Madras allows *bona fide* teachers to appear for the examination next above the one they have passed without having to attend classes or to submit term certificates. But this permission, while keeping the teacher engaged in academic studies, only brings down the qualifications of those engaged in teaching, for those who have thus improved their academic qualifications seek places open to college graduates and secure them without having experienced the liberalizing influence of college

1. Report Vol. 3, pp. 359—64.
2. C. U C. R. Vol. VII, pp. 359—64.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. V, p. 88.
4. Report of the training of teachers for elementary schools, p. 79.
5. Ibid. p. 21.
6. Bulletin 1930-31, pp. 21 and 26.

residence. The only consolation for Travancore educators is that most of these arrangements for the academic education of the teacher are unnecessary in a country where there is a plethora of college graduates.

We have already considered the means by which academic institutions provide professional education (Chapter IV above): now we shall consider the converse case where the professional institution provides the academic education or at least tries to improve it. This is largely a matter of the duration of the training course. If the period of training is long the academic standing of the teacher can be improved; if not, time can be found only for professional education. In England, two years beyond high school is the minimum duration of the training course and the first twelve or eighteen months are really devoted to academic work, and there is a well marked difference between "the general" as opposed to the professional subjects. Professional training occupies less than half of the two-year course[1]. In France, the length of the training course is three years for elementary school teachers and provision is made for deepening academic knowledge.[2] In Germany, the period of training is in no state less than two years for elementary school teachers. However no academic work is attempted and the education is purely professional[3]. In the United States the rural teacher is often prepared in high-school training classes and county normal schools. In both cases the course sometimes amounts to one year's training plus high school graduation. Teachers for the elementary school service are prepared in state and city normal schools. The minimum requirements in their case are high school graduation plus two years' residence. New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and Michigan call for three years' residence and the states of Rhode Island and California and the cities of Detroit, Washington, St. Louis and

1. Lance Jones—*Op cit.* p. 88.
2. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute pp. 509—12.
3. Alexander—Training Elementary Teachers in Germany, p.32.

Boston, for four years. The tendency is toward more extended curricula[1]. Buckingham says:[2] "One year's training beyond high school is useless, even two years can be only a halting place, four years should be the required minimum." With the greater time at their disposal, training institutions in the United States have devoted more attention to subject content, to substance, and to provide a cultural and liberal background for their students.

"Nowhere has a community progressive in other respects, diminished the professional preparation given its school teachers. The education of the teachers had measured the quality of the school and that in turn has been an almost unfailing index of the quality of the community. Everywhere the natural pressure and demand on the part of those responsible for education, is for a more and better preparation and not less[3]. But we have reduced the period of training for undergraduate teachers from two years to one. This was done in Dacca and for several reasons,—for the sake of economy, for providing quickly a supply of trained teachers and for saving poorly paid teachers the expense of two years' life in some city[4]. Similar arguments have been adduced for an one year course for teachers in England[5]. In the Teachers' College at Madras, the undergraduate period of training is one year and it is hoped to extend it to two years when it will be possible to pay some attention to the general education of the students.[6] Lucknow makes a distinction between intermediates and school leaving certificate holders, the former enter on an one year's course while the latter are trained for two years with subject matter courses predominating in the first

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute 1927, pp. 579-81.
2. Buckingham—Supply and Demand in Teacher-training—p. 4.
3. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14. p. 128.
4. C U. C. R, Vol. 3, p. 8.
5. Report of the Committee on the training of elementary school teachers, p. 80.
6. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* p. 30. This change has been effected since.

year[1]. Frankly stated, the qualification for teaching in the middle and primary grades of an English school in Travancore, is high school graduation plus one year's training which is what is common for rural-school teachers in the States. When we take into account the large number of untrained teachers, the qualification is really not even that.

Considering the low accomplishment of the Travancore high-school products who enter the teaching profession, the absence of all arrangements for preliminary education, the shortness of the period of training, and the impossibility of accommodating subject-matter courses in the training-college curriculum, we are tempted to raise the question, whether the undergraduate teachers will do any good at all in the English schools. The answer to this question hinges further on the relation of elementary education to secondary education. This is a question of universal incidence. In most western countries where elementary education has made great headway, the nature, purpose and organization of secondary education have challenged the attention of educators. The question may show different facts to different countries but the fundamentals of the problem remain the same everywhere. In the United States the ideal of equality of opportunity has led to mass secondary education with its problem of differentiated curricula. England, trembling on the borders of a more logical democracy, has assumed responsibility for a more extended education for all coupled with the English tradition of selecting an *elite* of intellect by the educational system. Germany, reacting to a new gospel of individual freedom, is using secondary education to break down class domination by developing a national unity. France, deeply proud of her culture, divides elementary education from secondary and while using the former for national and civic purposes, utilizes the latter for selection in leadership[2].

1 Ibid pp. 63 and 82.

2. Kandel—Essays in Comparative Education ; Hadow—Education of the Adolescent; Legge—The Rising Tide; Gurner—Day Schools of England; Educational Yearbooks of the International Institute

The position in Travancore resembles in certain elements the situation in these countries. Secondary education has become common, partly out of state action but chiefly out of individual ambition, and it has followed a false trail. Unlike the development in America the current, which has flowed fiercely in one direction, namely toward the universities, has to be diverted to different channels. The national consciousness can be used as in Germany for a new kind of culture and for peace among classes. But the situation bears marked resemblance to what it is in England and France, since the great problem is to educate real leaders. The high schools should efficiently perform a selective function, retaining those who should go to the university and who may be in a position to remake the life of society in all its aspects. Such leadership can be sustained only by those who are in intimate touch with progress all over the world; hence the English language should play a large part in the education of leaders. The language barrier divides elementary from secondary education and as in France the two should more or less run different courses. It was not without prescience that the "Committee for the Revision of Curricula for Elementary Schools in Travancore" wished to remodel them on French lines[1]. Vernacular schools should give elementary education and so should have civic ideals but at the same time these ideals should be fed on broad culture. Some opening should bring this culture from the university through the high schools to the vernacular schools. Such was the aim of the filtration theory of the British Indian educational system. The bearers of this culture may well be the undergraduate teachers, who may be out of place in the English schools but will do a noble duty in the vernacular schools.

The question of the position of undergraduate teachers is so directly connected with the courses of instruction in the training college, that we shall revert to it in that connection.

1. See Report.

CHAPTER VI.

Suggested Improvements—Curricula and Courses.

The discussions centering round the construction of curricula for teacher-training institutions have precipitated certain principles of prime importance. One of the most significant is the principle of differentiation. In the olden days in the United States and elsewhere, the principle held that the better " qualified " men should teach in the higher classes, while the less well qualified persons taught in the lower schools. The school was a kind of ladder in which the teacher could rise by improving his " qualifications ". Professional advancement in the past has usually meant 'promotion' from lower-grade service to upper-grade service, from elementary service to high-school service, from teaching to supervision, or from teaching to administration. This naive conception of advancement and promotion in educational work has operated most disastrously to discredit the actual work of teaching boys and girls, especially in the lower school, and has placed a disproportionate emphasis upon the so-called higher levels of teaching and especially of supervision, and administration[1]."

It is contended that because high-school pupils are fewer in numbers, the teachers should be correspondingly "select". Again high-school work is said to be " advanced " and high-school teachers have had to be prepared in colleges, whereas work in the primary grades is elementary and anyone could do it. The distinction between the elementary school and the high school was also a class distinction. For a long time the high school was an appendage to the college and as a college preparatory institution, it was a school of the elect Such is the position of affairs in Travancore even to-day.

The situation, however, is changing in the United States. It is really a survival from the days when training

1. The Professional Education of Teachers in Cleveland-Report, pp. 8-9.

was looked upon as unnecessary for the teaching profession. If one knew the subject, one could teach it. The high school as requiring more knowledge, got the college graduates and those with less qualification taught the elementary grades. This notion has changed with the progress of the professional idea. The training colleges have proved that elementary school work may be "advanced". Teaching English, for instance, to a beginning class in an Indian school is no work for a tyro. Not only should the teacher's English be grammatically correct but it should be idiomatic. He should have a good acquaintance with English usage and must have a good pronunciation—qualifications which are seldom found in undergraduates. Still less could they be expected to make a rational use of the methods devised to teach English to Indian pupils[1]. Class management becomes more arduous. The sympathy that exists naturally between the adolescent and the adult in the high school has to be developed by teachers in the elementary school where children's interests vary so widely from those of adults. The need to study children's aptitudes and interests may tax the best minds as much as any academic study. The realization of the social importance of teaching has raised the whole profession to a higher level. Therefore it is generally agreed among educationists that it is a false economy to make the teacher rise by changing his work instead of by capitalizing his experiences and by improving his work. The corrollary of this conclusion is that the services be equalized in regard to status and salaries. "The most highly qualified graduate may be in his element with the youngest boys ; a junior graduate, with no bent for real teaching, may be more useful in a studious and self-helpful upper standard.....There should be no top or bottom....for there is no greater sin of organization than the putting of the least capable man to the lowest class.....The lowest class should be the post of honor."[2] The services are not to be

1. Mackenzie—Instruction in Indian Secondary Schools, p. 67.
2, Wren—Indian School Organization, pp. 15-16.

differentiated according to pay, prospects and qualifications, but according to the different needs of the different parts of the school[1].

The training for teachers, it is generally agreed, should be differentiated in regard to kindergarten, primary, intermediate grade, upper grade, rural school, junior high, senior high, special subjects, special classes and administration[2]. But this is in the United States which has a "single-ladder" school system, constituting a gradual progression from the kindergarten to the university. In the case of Travancore the distinction should be made between the vernacular schools and the English schools. The vernacular schools are the folk schools which perform a collective function for the community and so the teaching, in order to carry farthest, has to be in the mother tongue. The distinction between the two schools is therefore one of language. But in order that the school system may perforn its selective function, there should be a flow of the most promising pupils from the vernacular schools to the English schools. To facilitate such transfers the teaching of English in the vernacular schools should be improved. For this reason the English-high-school-educated under-graduate teachers must undertake service in the vernacular schools in greater and greater numbers. However, in order that the English high schools may perform their selective function better men of superior academic attainments should be sent into them in all levels. The way of equalizing the services in Travancore schools, therefore, is by raising the qualifications of teachers. Though undergraduates are allowed to teach up to and including the Third Form (i. e. the eighth year of school), certain institutions, like the model school attached to the training college, have staffed all classes from the First Form (sixth year of school) above

1. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, pp. 132-138.

2. Curricula designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers-Charters and Waples-The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study, pp. 67-69.

with trained graduates. Many of the undergraduates who come for training are employed in the vernacular schools. If both practices become more common and if the primary grades were only staffed with specially trained women graduate teachers, the undergraduates will have but a narrow range of employment in the English schools which will obtain a staff homogeneous in training and outlook. This will enable the aim of English education to be reached by being held in view from the lowest to the highest class.

We have already remarked on the absence of kindergartens in Travancore and the possibility of introducing them. Beyond the kindergarten, we may distinguish the first four years as the primary grades, the next four as middle grades, and the final three as the high school. In the kindergarten and the primary grades, staffing should select people who have special gifts for the work, and training should aim at giving knowledge of child interests and aptitudes and methods of child education. The instrumental purpose of the middle grades should be kept in view and men should be appointed to them who could invest the child with the means of learning and their efficient mastery. These would be men who while possessed of mastery of subjectmatter will yet keep it subservient to the method and the purpose of the school. The preparatory function of the high school, fitting for college as well as life, should be consulted in staff appointments. Men of close acquaintance with life as well as men of scholarship should be preferred. While a bachelor's degree plus training should suffice, there should be a good sprinkling of persons with the master's and honors degrees. "The justification of this differentiation rests on the fact that the training now clearly indispensable to efficient teaching has become so specialized as to preclude the satisfactory initial preparation of a candidate for any but a limited range of grades, subjects or pupils, or a specific type of school."[1] The advantage of differentiation consists

1. Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers Thesis 2.

in concentration on the problems in hand, bringing all relevant knowledge to bear on them.

The principle of differentiation will be of great importance in distinguishing the training of graduates from that of undergraduates. In spite of the difference in caliber of the two classes of men and the work they will be called upon to do, their curricula of studies look remarkably alike. The same lecturer handles both graduate and undergraduate classes in each of the subjects and he is tempted to treat the work as on the same plane. Besides, it looks impressive to have the same syllabus for the undergraduates that is used for the graduates. This is most unwarranted. The graduate teacher is bound to hold a responsible post and so should be in a position to initiate. The undergraduate never goes beyond a class teacher position. He is only an assistant destined to carry out orders. Therefore the training of the two should differ.[1]

Mr. Sharp says[2]: "The elementary teacher has a limited ground-work of knowledge; he has not been fitted by a university career for the appreciation and application of general principles..... The secondary teacher possesses a greater breadth of knowledge and a higher power of applying abstract truths. ... ...The elementary teacher will be called upon to manage children whose age and forms of thought are far removed from his own. The secondary teacher is not confronted with this difficulty; those with whom he will come in contact, are of an age and mode of thought more closely akin to his own. The child in his formative stage requires concrete facts, direct instruction, plain and imperative discipline based on compromise. The course of training suitable for an elementary teacher should therefore aim not at great width of knowledge but at a larger amount of practice, at general methods of teaching all elementary subjects, at a uniform, concrete and empirical methodology in each particular subject.....at the psychology and physiology of

1. C. U. C. R. Vol. 3, p. 5.
2. Sharp-Training of Elementary and Secondary Teachers, p.39.

childhood. Against this, the course laid down for secondary teachers should compromise wider general knowledge with some highly specialized knowledge.....theoretical and scientific methodology not scientifically presented but of sufficient variety to permit of choice and adaptations; studies calculated to enable him to produce enthusiasm and habits of orderly thinking in his pupils; the psychology and physiology of adolescence." It was such considerations that led to the undergraduate class being removed from the training college at Allahabad, to a separate college in Lucknow.[1]

I have quoted Sharp at some length because his contentions bear traces of another controversy in teacher-training, namely whether the professional preparation of teachers should be training or education, whether we should aim at making artisans and technicians or artists. This question once again turns on the old-time but ever present controversy whether teaching is a craft or an applied science, whether the skills and practice should dominate training as in carpentry, or theory and the power to apply knowledge should take precedence as in medicine. Bagley holds a position in this controversy which, while neither denying the craftsmanship nor the applied science nature of teaching, looks upon it as more nearly akin to a fine art, where the cunning of the hand and the power of intellect are commingled with emotional concentration and pride in the performance. Training methods differ according as we look upon teaching as a craft, an applied science, or a creative art.

"According to the traditional view the course should first and foremost give technical training in class management and methods of teaching the subjects of the school curriculam. Another school.....(thinks) training in college .....should be a time for the study of first principles, the application of which under varying circumstances is to be the life work of the future teacher.....In spite of a long tradition of training in method, mainly on empirical lines, the

1. Duncan and Mackenzie-*Op. Cit.* p. 67.

best of them have, in recent years, been steadily striving to develop a more scientific type of training, based on the study of psychology and developed as far as possible experimentally, in short to equip their students with a knowledge of the theory as well as the practice of education. That the effort is commendable most people will agree.....(but)..... the result is too often merely 'potted psychology' and the assurance begotten of little knowledge, rather than that willingness to learn from experience, which should be one of the fruits of a professional course." [1]

The position of psychology is crucial in the whole controversy. Bagley believes that psychology has a twofold function in the training of a teacher. Psychology affords an interpretive basis for the study of practice and it provides a working theory of the mental life as a basis of understanding the larger problems of education, many of which are only remotely connected with teaching. Psychology is not a propaedeutic to teaching in the same sense that physics is a propaedeutic to engineering, it is rather an accompaniment in that the young teacher will depend largely upon imitation and practice to master the technique of his art. He should be something more than a craftsman. However, he should be charged with some measure of responsibility for constructing evaluating and criticising general educational proposals and programs. He must know the relation of education to other social forces, he must know what functions education has to discharge. what institutions and agencies are available and under what limitations these agencies work A training confined to the skill aspects of teaching may produce a type of class-room efficiency marvellously well adapted to an educational system in which the thinking, planning and direction are centralized in a single official, or in a group of officials, standing over the class-room teachers much as the boss in a factory stands over the "hands". In a more rational organization the teachers themselves should have a large part in determining

1. Lance Jones-*Op. Cit*, pp. 97-98.

the educational policies of the country. Though all cannot be leaders, in a real democracy, all should be intelligent interpreters and critics.[1]

We have already pointed out that in the present educational situation in India, teachers have not merely to be efficient craftsmen but educational thinkers as well.[2] We are to work away from a centralized educational system in the hands of the English rulers of the country, toward a localized system in the hands of the people themselves. We have also suggested that the pupils themselves have to be educated for a new freedom, intellectual, social, and political. The situation is analogous to what it was in post-war Germany. The old normal schools were abolished as sending out teachers trained in rule of thumb methods designed to perpetuate the *status quo* by educating docile citizens. "The most important thought in the new teacher-training in Prussia is that the young teacher is to be trained so that he will be able to master of his own accord situations which arise, in sharp contrast with the old method where the young teacher was expected to be prepared for each specific situation that might arise." [3]

We want both types in Travancore, the pedestrian teacher who will carry out established programs in a skilful manner and the creative thinker who will evaluate, originate and remake such programs. At the same time we should agree with Sharp in thinking that the two types should be represented by the two classes, the undergraduates and the graduates. The undergraduates should have "training" while the graduates should have the "education" that will fit them for educational leadership. The curricula of the two classes of teachers should therefore be correspondingly differentiated. The undergraduate curricula should include only well established methods without an examination of

1. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 169-172.
2. Paranjpye M. R.-Proceedings of the All-India Federation of Teachers Associations-fourth session, 1928, p. 107.
3. Alexander—Training Elementary Teachers in Germany, p. 82.

the principles on which they are based. Thus in the graduate class a great deal more psychology can be taught than in the undergraduate class, because, as William James says, psychology will tell us which methods will be right and which wrong, for every method should agree with psychological principles. Therefore psychology will help us to keep our heads in the rapid whirl of educational opinion (*Talks to Teachers* I). While it may be justifiable to inculcate honest doubt in the graduate class which contains the future educational thinkers who have to evaluate future educational practice, it will be disastrous to have it introduced into the undergraduate class, where definite well tested material alone should be employed. As Bagley says, we should not allow every new-born unfledged educational doctrine to have the run of the pre-service training schools but should reserve their introduction to in-service education where the mature students have the wherewithal to test their soundness

There is another controversy in regard to the curriculum in a teacher-training institution. Some have held that the training of a teacher should emphasize subject matter, while method should arise incidentally. Others hold that the whole curriculum, academic as well as professional should be constructed with a view to the needs of those who are planning to teach. The latter is the normal-school view, the former the liberal-arts college view. There is no doubt that most of the attention of the student should be devoted to acquiring the specific subject matter to be taught; but this is by no means narrow in scope. Even when looked at from the point of view of teaching there are aspects of it to be mastered which would give the 'broad scholarship" insisted on by the liberal arts view. Such a treatment of the subject matter amounts to "new views" rather than "reviews." [2] Thus the long controversy[3] between "academic"

1. Bagley-Education, Crime and Social Progress, pp. 84-85.
2. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 149-152.
3. Randolph; Professional Treatment of Subject Matter, pp. 12-18.

or "professional" curricula has been resolved by the new principle of the professionalization of subject matter. This has been variously defined. The "Report of the training of elementary teachers in England" says (p. 68), "A man with a secondary education will have acquired enough knowledge of the subject in the sense of facts, what he wants is a grasp of it from the point of view of teaching." (p. 92). "Subjects should be studied from the point of view of the part they play in a child's education and of how they can be "presented." Dover Wilson[1] says: "Training means the careful examination of the English, the arithmetic, the geography, and so on of a good primary school course from the point of view of teaching." A more definite notion can be had from Bagley who says[2]: "Professionalization of subject matter means a serious attempt to humanize knowledge to reveal its true meaning, to show how it has evolved out of human experiences and how it has helped men and women to solve their problems and especially to show how it can be built into the experience of each oncoming generation..... The whole purpose of professionalizing subject matter is to make sure that knowledge will throb with life and meaning and that it will enrich in the largest possible measure the lives of just as many people as possible—to enable the teacher to make knowledge really live in the experiences of boys and girls."

As analyzed by E. E. Randolph[3] the elements of professionalized subject matter are nine in number. The history of the subject, the evaluation of textbooks, the development in methods of teaching it, the literature of the subject, its educational values, exercises in course making, the psychology of the subject, and the standardized tests thereof. Pendleton's analysis[4] brings us nearer the problems

1. Dover Wilson-Schools of England, p. 219.
2. Suhrie: Problems in Teacher Training, Vol. 3, p. 156.
3. Randolph—The Professional Treatment of Subject Matter, pp. 106-121.
4. Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1926, pp. 30-41.

of the training college. He says that every subject matter course should also be a method course. that both the education course and the subject course should converge on each block of content, that the subject matter course should be tinged with an inspiration and a personal appeal, and that content should be acquired by use and activity, by the free use of apparatus so that the teacher may have a dynamic knowledge of the subject. He says that the training period should give access to developing views of the subject and to new fields of knowledge unknown during the college course. The process of study should be made conscious, the childish appeal should be consulted and the social implications of subject matter should be understood. Above all studies should develop personality.

These discussions have to be kept in view in framing curricula for the Trivandrum training college. They dictate first that certain new courses be started ; secondly, that the existing courses be revised; and thirdly, certain readjustments be made as between one course and another.

It is very unfortunate that the teachers' college at Trivandrum should not have been affiliated to the university in the branch known as "child education" which was formerly known by the more descriptive title of "all subjects to little children". It is a graduate course and in all the other three colleges, it is taught by women lecturers, who have had their education in the subject either in Europe or in America. In the men's college at Saidapet the subject is elected by men graduates who will never be required to use the training thus obtained, as they are not likely to be called upon to teach the lower schools. But it may be of some use to them in administrative and supervisory functions. In order to avoid having those elect it who do not need it for teaching, the subject may first be introduced in the undergraduate class in Trivandrum, and the women students encouraged to elect it. A woman graduate with a good academic degree may be deputed to take the licentiate course in the subject in one of the two women's training

colleges in Madras, to study the organization of the subject in those colleges and to introduce it at Trivandrum. She may begin a kindergarten in the model school and if the Travancore Education Department accepts the policy of appointing women graduates to the primary classes of English schools, the subject may be introduced in the graduate class also. A beginning will thus be made in regard to the scientific education of children in the early stages.

Arrangements should also be made to institute the optional group in geography for the graduate class. Economic, commercial, industrial and ethnographic geography ought to prove of great value in a high school education which will prepare not merely for the universities, but also for life vocations. The undue neglect of geography is about to the corrected from the top since the universities are including it among the subjects of study. Soon graduates in the subject will be available for training and if the training college institutes the method course in geography for them, the teaching of the subject in the schools will be greatly improved,[1] a matter desired by most Indian educationists.

Finally the training college will encourage the study of the vernaculars if it starts the method of teaching the mother tongue as one of the optional subjects which the graduate can elect during his period of training. At present the teaching of the vernacular languages in the schools is in the hands of *pundits* and *munshis* of very deep scholarship in their languages but often ignorant of English. The high school boy, somehow, fails to respect them and their class resembles the modern French class of an English school, in the matter of discipline. Their teaching methods are the traditional methods ultimately derivable from the study of Sanskrit, and emphasize accurate verbal memorizing, the value of synonyms and grammar, ignoring speech as preparing for composition[2]. The study of the vernacular

1. Travancore University Committee Report, p. 269; C. U. C. R. General Memoranda—Vol. VII, p. 366.

2. Mackenzie—Instruction in Indian Secondary Schools, pp. 107-108.

has made great headway in the universities as a result of the popular control of those institutions. The departments of Oriental studies in the universities are producing graduates who have specialized in the study of the various Indian languages. If these graduates were only to handle the teaching of the mother tongue in the schools, real advance in the position of the vernaculars in the educational system could be made. It will be the function of the training college to perfect the methods of teaching the mother tongue[1].

When we come to construct the curriculum for the undergraduates, the principles that we have already enunciated should enable us to lay down the details of the course in each subject. In regard to the course in the general theory and practice of education, a few elementary topics in psychology, such as instincts, habits and the laws of learning, should be included and a genetic teratment recommended. These principles should lead to simple descriptive accounts of the methods of Froebel, Montessori, and Dewey. This should be followed by an elementary course in the principles of classroom management, the technique of teaching, and the problem of discipline. These principles will be illuminated and illustrated in connection with the practice teaching in the model school[2]. School organization will be learnt with reference to the model school and the principles of hygiene will be acquired in connection with physical education.

When we draw up the courses in the various subjects-English, mathematics, history, geography, nature study, what are called primary methods, should be stressed. After a brief treatment of the psychology of each elementary-school subject which will relate the subject to what was studied in general theory, we should proceed to the methods

1. Report of Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency, 1926-27, p. 83, says that a course of teacher training has been started for pundits at Chidambaram.

2. C. U. C. R. Vol. IV, p. 13.

of teaching each part of the subject-matter syllabus.[1] The psychology of each subject should thus constitute the "bridge course" between the theory and the practice[2]. In English, primary methods in reading, the principles of language and story work, and the means of evoking expression should be studied. Discussions of the merits and defects of special methods, such as direct methods, oral methods, should be avoided except where they are meant to root out inherited prejudices. The practices based on these methods should be taught however. The evil is, that when we dissect methods before the teacher, he loses confidence in any one or all of them and falls back on the erroneous methods by which he was himself taught.

The methodology of number work has been well developed. Not merely should the teacher understand the subject matter of arithmetic, but he should see the logic of it in order to teach it sensibly, and the history of it in order to appreciate the significance of the methods he follows. The selection of problems, inductive and deductive methods, the tests and scales, the history of the methods of teaching and the relation of arithmetic to practical life should all be taught. Similarly history, geography, and nature study should be correlated and taught by practical methods with reference to environmental conditions.[3] The present syllabi in these subjects are too academic and ambitious.

In regard to the graduate curriculum, the scheme of studies with the theory and practice of education and the special methods of teaching English and one other subject should be considered quite suitable to the conditions of India[4]. But the syllabus under each subject should undergo radical revision. The principles of physiology, hygiene and physical exercise, as also the organization of games, extra curricular

1. Bagley—Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers—2 years course.
2. Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers, 1928, p 73.
3. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14. pp. 149-152.
4. Duncan and Mackenzie—The Training of Teachers, pp. 13-16.

activities, and school organization in general, are at present included in the syllabus for the theory and practice of education. Students have often told me that these topics are far below their standards and that they may be relied upon to get acquainted with them during their training period. The topics in psychology should be so selected as to give developing views of the subject. The effect on the future teacher should be judged not so much by the number of facts connected with educational psychology that he carries away from the training college, but rather by a new attitude toward his work determined by his study of psychology as well as by the desire to continue his studies further. One topic in educational psychology which India should be introduced to, is the measurement movement and enough attention should be devoted to it in the course to make it a vital factor in the life of the future teacher. Topics comprised under "general method" would be a good point of departure for a consideration of modern methods, and problems in the philosophy of education with a running commentary on their historical setting would provoke thought. Since some of the graduate students will occupy positions of supervision and administration, which require the initiating and the carrying out of educational policies, they should be provided with some knowledge of comparative education.

The course in English and the other special subjects should similarly aim at more than the pedestrian object of turning out good craftsmen. The products of the training college should be able to adapt their methods to local needs and to fashion new methods to suit the Indian educational situation. Until now, the main contributions to the technique of English teaching in the country have been made by Englishmen. The time has come when Indians should take a hand not merely in adapting methods of teaching modern foreign languages to Indian conditions, but also of devising new methods for teaching the mother tongue. The necessity for selecting valuable subject matter, of suiting exposition and illustration to the Indian

environment, is great in mathematics, physics, chemistry, history, and geography; and the courses in these subjects should aim at making creative teachers. We could do worse than to adopt *en bloc* E. Randolph's nine principles in making out courses in these subjects.

There are three groups of subjects in the training college curriculum, the position of which deserves re-examination. They are not subjects in which the students undergo the university examination and their place in the training of the teacher has not been well defined. They are physical drill, drawing and manual training. There are two aspects to the educational value of these subjects. In one aspect skill in them may prove to be an aid to the teacher. To be able to organize games, to be a play leader, to provide a hygienic atmosphere in the classroom, and to have an eye for the physical health condition of the pupils, are indispensable parts of the professional equipment of a teacher. To be able to illustrate one's lessons with blackboard sketches or to revivify the lesson with cardboard or clay construction, makes teaching most effective and every teacher in the lower school should know something of both arts.[1] Again in the higher classes, to the teacher of geography, history and the sciences, different degrees of skill in these accomplishments are essential. The problem is therefore to decide what shall be taught and to whom.

In another aspect drawing, physical drill and manual training are educational subjects with values of their own. Not all can excel in them, and a special technique is required in teaching them. As such, the teaching of these subjects should be in the hands of specialists ; and training to teach them should not be given to all. Yet in the training college we make all students go through these courses whether they have the aptitude for them or not. That many of them do not have special aptitudes in these subjects is amply borne out by the history of these subjects in the training

1. Lance Jones—*Op cit.* p. 159; Report of the Training of Elementary Teachers, p. 124.

college. The students freely speak of the drawing, physical drill and manual training classes as periods of torture. Being men of advanced years two hours of woodwork or an hour and a half of seat work in drawing does not put them in sympathy with these activities, or animate them with a desire to give a prominent position to these subjects in the schools in which they will teach. "The drill periods are not welcomed by many students and little enthusiasm is displayed"[1]. Again there are one or more teachers of manual training, physical drill and drawing in every school and the ordinary teacher is never required to teach any one of these subjects. The organization of their teaching in the training college should therefore be changed.

The Indian schools have the old type of physical education represented by formal exercises; and the teachers are ex-gymnasts or men who have physical prowess, and the means of developing it. A new conception of physical education is gaining ground based on hygiene, physiology and psychology and expresses itself in stressing spontaneous play and organized games.[2] The teachers are graduates of the university who have studied methods of physical education under expert guidance. The Y. M. C. A. has established a college of physical education in Madras, and the university has recommended that graduates should be appointed to teach physical education in the colleges. The movement is in a fair way of entering the lower schools. The teachers college at Saidapet is appointing a director of physical education trained in the Y. M. C. A. College. The two women's training colleges in Madras have properly qualified directors of physical education and the way is open to appoint one such in Trivandrum. He may be entrusted with teaching school hygiene for the whole class and allowed to teach a select few to be play leaders, organizers of games, scout masters and teachers of first aid. In this way all will realize the importance of health education and will learn to

1. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* p. 23.
2. See Buck: Syllabus of Physical Education in Madras.

participate in recreational activities,[1] while some will be able to organize games and supervise the physical education of pupils, so that ultimately we can say of the schools of India what Bolton King says of England[2]: "The average child of fourteen today is an inch taller and four pounds heavier than he was eight years ago." In course of time, the old type of drill master may be replaced by educated physical directors, trained in modern methods to obtain good results from the State's scheme of health education.

Handwork is both a subject and a method. As a subject it develops into handicraft and should be taught by specialists. In olden days the subject was taught in England by artisans[3] but now it is in the hands of educated persons. The Trivandrum Teachers College did well to select graduates to teach the subject in the high schools and undergraduates to teach it in the lower schools. However, all should have some knowledge of the importance of handwork in education, and its usefulness as a method. The instructors who are graduates should give a few general lectures to both classes on these topics.

The syllabus in drawing laid down by the education authorities for London[4] divides the course into three sections drawing practice, theory and school method, application to the other work of the students. The second division is meant for teachers of drawing and the first is divided into four parts—representative or imitative drawing, creative or inventive drawing with instruments and lettering. The syllabus says (1931, p. 64), "It is not intended, nor indeed is it usually feasible, that all students should practice all these branches of the subject. What part a student shall learn will depend upon his previous training, taste and the needs of his work." The third part of the syllabus deals with

1. Bulletin No. 14, p. 247; Report of Training Elementary Teachers, p. 133.
2. Bolton King—Schools of Today, p. 5.
3. Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* p. 168.
4. Syllabusses for Training Students, 1921-31.

applications. Drawing with instruments is appropriate for science and mathematics; representative drawing is useful for the nature study, history and geography teacher; creative drawing for the teacher of languages and the story teller; lettering may help teachers of penmanship. These principles may be followed in the teaching of drawing in the training college. Rangoon has a lecturer in pedagogical drawing and Mysore examines on it.[1]

We have thus suggested that drawing, drill and manual training should be electives. This will save a considerable amount of time for each student and make him go farther in the activity that he has chosen.[2] In course of time, the teachers of these subjects in the Travancore schools will not merely be proficient in their subjects but will be men of education who have learnt the pedagogical value of their subject. We have said nothing about Domestic Science, chiefly because it is in the curriculum of the lower girls' schools for which teachers are prepared in the vernacular training schools. The subject has been introduced as an optional for the licentiate in Teaching of the Madras University and the two women's colleges in Madras prepare students for it. Its importance cannot be overrated for Travancore. A woman graduate may be deputed to study the subject in these colleges and allowed to prepare a few women teachers in the subject.

Similarly something ought to be done to insure a supply of teachers in commercial subjects. The greatest service that Teachers College of Columbia University has done for American education is through its School of Practical Arts, whereby it has supplied supervisors in the practical subjects for the whole country. If the Teachers College at Trivandrum were to do a similar service to Travancore education, the curriculum in the practical subjects would be less of a dead letter than it is at present.

1. Inter-universities' Board Yearbook p. 278 and p. 383.

2. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* pp. 21-23.

The criticism usually leveled against the training colleges is that their work is unrelated to practice, that students resort to them to secure additional degrees and emoluments and that the examination which terminates the course is taken to be the most important part of it. This cannot but be where there is no preservice training. If appointment to teaching posts were dependent on professional qualifications and if preference were given to those who had done well in their training course, there would be an incentive to take the course seriously. As it is we are told that in Bengal "forcible deputation by the inspectors of schools" remains the principal means of filling the training colleges[1]. In Travancore a "raw" graduate receives an appointment to a teaching post on Rs. 50 ($18. 18) a month, with an annual increment of Rs. 5 ($1. 8) until he reaches Rs. 70 ($25. 45), when all increments cease until he takes the degree of Licentiate in Teaching after which they resume at the rate of Rs. 10 ($ 3. 6) a month each year. So he is anxious to be selected for training. A money value attaches to the degree, which fact combined with the external examination diminishes the value of the actual work done during the course in the eyes of the students.

Mr. E. E. Biss has doubted the possibility of testing by means of questions some of the qualities on which ability to teach rest[2] and Mackenzie has described in detail the arrangements by which the University of Allahabad escapes some of the evils connected with an external examination for a professional degree in an affiliative university[3]. The idea is to secure uniformity in assessing the work of students who come from different colleges. So matters on which there is agreement in regard to content and in which tests of value can be set are easily examined. But in such subjects as nature study, where local variations exist, colleges make their own syllabi which are sent to the examiners who set the papers. By means of alternate

1. C. U. C. R. General Memoranda Vol. 7, p. 359.
2. C. U C. R. Vol. 3, pp. 12-13.
3. Ibid. pp. 13-15.

questions they cover all syllabi. In judging the final result the class record of each student is consulted.

Madras is six hundred miles from Trivandrum and the schools of the Madras presidency belong to a different system. When a question is set on a practical problem such as the school syllabus, the Travancore student is at sea. Still an external examination is good where it does not prejudice teaching and learning, since it commands prestige for the degree and compares the work of one college with that of another. So long as the members of the staff of the teachers colleges are on the examination board of the university the evils of an external examination need not be very prominent.

One of the reasons that makes the whole work of the training college academic, theoretical, and unreal, is the lecture method which is used throughout in all subjects. The University Quinquennial Commission drew attention to this and suggested that essay writing and the discussion method should be utilized more and more. Mr. W. F. Griffiths writes that the students of the Calcutta Training College derived great benefit from the writing of weekly essays on educational subjects[1]. "Free activity" groups on the model of the German teacher-training institutes may be organized and collections of dolls, specimens, play materials and the like encouraged. Lecturing may be vitalized by dealing with current topics instead of with severely academic material. The reports of school final examinations, administration reports of the Education Department, magazine articles, accounts of experimental schools, may all be discussed in class in relation to educational principles. The Training College Teachers Association should be made an active body and organized into a forum. We have said that exclusive use of authoritarian instruction and indoctrination were sapping the Indian pupil's powers for critical thinking. How can we expect teachers to quit the habit of spoon-feeding their pupils if we do not place good models

1. C. U. C. R. Vol. 7, p. 363.

before them? The teaching in the training college should be exemplary especially in the matter of "good form", the teacher should explain the methods of great teachers, attempt to give good examples himself, allow his pupils to question him about his methods and generally stimulate good teaching.[1] From the point of view of general class-room procedure, the teaching with which the students of the normal school come into contact represents the kind that they will be expected to do in their later work, especially if they teach in the upper grades or in the high school. "The 'lecture method'.....is little in evidence.....The infrequency of the lecture and the prevalence of the class recitation and discussion constitute the most noticeable distinction between these schools and the liberal-arts college."[2] For the efficient use of such methods the library service should be thoroughly overhauled and the reserve system started so that assignments may be adequately prepared.

One more method of infusing interest in the training course is the institution of the Master's degree in education by the university. Mr. E. E. Biss suggested that the holders of the Bachelor of Teaching degree should be allowed to take the Master's in Education.[3] This suggestion was accepted by the Calcutta University Commission.[4] Dacca University[5] and Patna University[6] have instituted the "master of teaching" degree in education. The Madras University may well follow the example and introduce the 'master of arts' degree in education. It may be a two years' course after graduation, the year spent in the licentiate class being counted towards the degree. With four general subjects—educational philosophy, history of education, comparative education and educational psychology—with

1. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 247-257.
2. Ibid. p. 248.
3. C. U. C. R. Vol. 3, p. 17.
4. C. U. C. R. Vol. 5, p. 94.
5. India Inter-Universities' Board Handbook, 1927 p, 187.
6. Ibid p, 334.

two special subjects in modern methods, education will take rank with the other subjects for the master's degree and will hardly be a soft option. It will satisfy the teacher's natural desire for a higher degree and provide the personnel for the training college staffs and other offices where a specialized knowledge of education is required.

A rare combination of qualifications is required in the lecturer for a teachers' college. He should be a specialist in his field preferably holding a doctor's degree with research to his credit. Both the United States and France have special institutions where such men can be trained.[1] He must have experience of school work. In England this is ensured by selecting masters from the elementary and secondary schools.[2] Youth is also given a certain amount of preference.[3] All insist on the necessity to provide leave of absence for travel, study and research.[4]

In Travancore the slightly higher salary of the training college lecturer has attracted the better type of teacher from the schools; but has been hardly adequate to keep him in the college. Both tendencies are substantiated by the fact that all of the recent chief inspectors of schools to the number of five had been on the staff of the Teachers College some time in their career. But the tendency also works to bring into the staff men who are merely senior but have no special qualifications for the work. The rule is that masters of arts with good degrees in education should be preferred. At present, among the nine members of the staff, only four have the master's degree. Recently the government has ruled that lecturers in the Training College should seek promotion not as headmasters in the secondary schools but in the Training College itself and has increased the number of posts in the higher grade. If the master's degree in education is instituted younger men, who have better

1. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 99-101; Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* pp. 333-337.
2. Report on the Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools, pp. 94-96.
3. Lance Jones-*Op. Cit.* pp. 76-77.
4. Bulletin No. 14 p. 281.

acquaintance with educational science, can be selected. The University Quinquennial Commission has remarked on the absence in the staff of men acquainted with foreign systems of education. This defect can be remedied by granting study leave for the members. It has also been suggested that members of the staff should keep in touch with the schools.

There is a difference in conception between "staff" and "faculty". The word *staff* is used to describe the assistants in a school where they are under the orders of a head. But *faculty* means admission into a select and homogeneous group of scholars jointly responsible for a high educational enterprise.[1] A training college staff should approximate the status and position of a faculty. There should be a democratic participation on the part of the faculty in the formation of programs and policies. This is necessary for co-ordinating instruction and may be achieved through a faculty council.[2] Already in Trivandrum, each member of the staff has some specific function assigned to him, such as sports, residence, library, and teachers' association. Meetings of the staff are called for very special reasons, but such consultations should be more and more frequent. Co-operation of this kind gives pride to the staff, brings intimate knowledge to bear on the solution of problems and avoids differences. "A good faculty contains judgement equal or superior to his (the chief executive's) on almost any single point, and it is considered the height of administrative unwisdom to risk arbitrary action in matters that should come through co-operative conclusion."[3]

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1. Bulletin No. 14, p. 277.
2. Agnew—*Op. Cit.* p. 183.
3. Bulletin No. 14, p. 281.

CHAPTER VII.

Practical Training.

The importance of practice work has been truly adjudged in "The Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools," which says "The organization of a teacher-training college should represent a thorough-going integration of all courses around the actual work of teaching as a centre. To this end the training department should be the central department of the college and all courses in the institution should be correlated as closely as possible with the work in observation and practice teaching."[1] The teacher should learn the theory of the methods of teaching; not only so, but he should have the desire to carry them out in his teaching life, for which purpose he should have been inducted into their use during his training period and taught how to apply them.

Several kinds of practice work are possible. There are the "model lessons", "demonstration lessons,", "exhibition lessons", "critique lessons", "criticism lessons," "discussion lessons", "open lessons", "observation", "participation", "student teaching" or "practice teaching." The first three belong to a group; the next four are more or less different names for one and the same thing; observation is in a class by itself though it may be an accompaniment of all kinds of practice work. The last three once again form a group among themselves.

Model lessons are generally given by training-college lecturers to illustrate type lessons. Exhibition lessons are similar in nature, but do not have any specific purpose behind them except to show "good form" in teaching generally,

1. Thesis 8.
2. Garrison—*Op. Cit.* p. 57.

while demonstration lessons can be given by both critic teachers and lecturers.[1] The object is to have students see work done by teachers of special competence and experience. Lance Jones[2] indicates that in the English practice, demonstration lessons might be given either by the lecturer or by the more able students.

Jones thinks that the name "criticism lesson" should be reserved for the formal lessons given before smaller groups of students. "On these occasions a student has to teach before his fellows and one or more members of the college staff, for purposes of criticism and discussion. Sometimes a book of very elaborate criticism forms is supplied for the purpose and in other cases the students are merely given a few headings for guidance." Since the lesson given by the student-teacher is thrown open to criticism and discussion, it is also called "open lesson" or "discussion lesson". In America the name "critique lesson", and "exhibition lesson" are used to describe this type of lesson,[3] while in France it is called "demonstration lesson" and one is given every Saturday.[4]

The defect of the criticism lesson is that it is not given in a natural setting, but is often formal and unnatural in character. It also involves a great deal of movement on the part of the pupils of the school. It makes the diffident teacher nervous and is altogether something of an ordeal. Often the lesson has no connection with what is being done either in the training college or in the model school, being absolutely isolated. Moreover each student gets at best only one lesson during his training period and hence the faults which were noticed cannot be remedied on another occasion and the effects of chance cannot be allowed for. Therefore in Madras criticism lessons are given before small

1. Wilson—Training Departments in State Normal Schools, pp. 59-60.
2. Lance Jones—*Op. cit.* p. 96.
3. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, p. 214.
4. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute p. 515.

groups,—a practice which eliminates the problems of class management, gives self-confidence to the teacher and does not disorganize the work of the school. Such lessons are also made to arise out of the work in theory.[1]

"As usually conducted, the teacher gives an isolated lesson to a handful of little boys; the lesson is given before his fellow students and the headmaster to whom he first submits a copy of 'notes of lessons'. At the end of the lesson some students are called upon to criticize the lesson and finally the headmaster sums up with a few remarks. The whole proceeding lasts about half an hour. As there are usually not more than six boys in the class, there is little to criticize under the head 'class management' and accordingly the comments are confined to points of method. The students' criticisms are of slight value. They lose themselves in side issues.....The criticism lesson should be expository rather than critical, the headmaster should use it as the text for a lecture to be given on the same day at some subsequent period. His criticism should be constructive and should cover such points as the special methods of the subject, the suitability of the subject to the class, discipline and class management. The lesson should not be isolated but should be one of a series which the teacher is giving in the practicing school; it should be given to a full class.[2]

Observation lessons are defined by Garrison [3] as the observation of regular teaching in the model school. It may be meant for students in the college, as preparation for practice teaching and for noting down points mentioned in the class.[4] Five different types of observation have been distinguished. First, each group of ten or fifteen has a different schedule. They observe, report, and discuss with the

1. Duncan and Mackenzie—The Training of Teachers, p. 19.
2. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* p. 47.
3. Garrison—Status and Work of the Training Supervisor, p. 57.
4. Ibid. pp. 62-64.
5. Armentrout—Conduct of Student Teaching, p. 78; also Mead—Supervised Teaching, p. 161.

training teacher. Secondly, in the demonstration type, chapters in a book of the kind of Parker's "General Methods of Teaching" are discussed in the class followed by demonstration of the principles in the actual class teaching. The training teacher supplies a lesson plan which is criticised by the lecturer in class. After observation there is discussion and a test. The third type of observation is preparatory to student teaching. Oftentimes it consists of observation for a quarter in the class he is going to teach. Knowledge of subject matter is thus insured. The fourth type of observation is participation of a type which is better adapted to the high rather than to the lower school,—that is the student becomes for the time being a member of the class, preparing all assignments, taking part in discussions, and gradually becoming responsible in the guidance of the class.[1]

Mead remarks that observation is not the best way of learning, and if good results are to be obtained, the student should be taught what to observe. The subject of observation should be divided into units and the student's attention should be called to each point to be observed. Books like Broadhurst's "Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching" and Myers and Harshman's "Training Secondary School Teachers" are written on this plan and are meant to make the most of observation. Observation ensures a preliminary concrete study of the actual procedure and technique of an art and, if needed anywhere, it is needed in the preparation of teachers. The observations are best made in closely articulated subject matter and methods course, and when carefully organized in regard to supervision and checking up of results.[2]

Model lessons are properly utilized in Trivandrum and provide types on which students can base the plan of their teaching. Exhibition classes, showing well articulated lessons typifying flawless technique, are not given and might

1. H. C. Miller—18th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p 57.
2. Bulletin No. 14, pp. 211-213.

well be introduced. Demonstration lessons, showing contexts where problems arise and the way in which the master-teacher faces them, are not given prominence and should be used more and more to illustrate the relation of theory to practice. On the other hand, criticism lessons are given much more prominence than they deserve. At present six periods in the graduate class and eight periods in the undergraduate class, out of a total of thirty-five periods in the week, are given over to criticism lessons. As organized now, the lessons could hardly be taken as affording the benefit to be expected of so much expenditure of valuable time. Careful planning is needed to avoid some of the defects of the criticism lessons and to get the full value out of it. Observation cannot be said to be satisfactorily organized. It is not adequately supervised and controlled. There is no provision for student participation. A fundamental principle in teacher-training is involved in the part assigned to participation.[1] Some authorities, such as Chartres, hold that practical training should be of the apprenticeship type. Others, like Maxwell, hold that observation and knowledge should precede practice. Bagley takes a middle position[2] in the controversy. He holds that contact with the training school should be more than mere observation; it should involve actual responsibilities for some types of actual service with children and under the direction of master teachers of children. It should culminate in a period of responsible teaching under fairly normal classroom conditions. This graduated induction into actual teaching has been worked out with great care and detail by Pryor in his "Graded Units of Student Teaching" (p. 5), and the general procedure receives confirmation from the results of a controlled experiment carried on by Miss Marshall.[3]

In the circumstances of the Trivandrum Teachers' College with the limited time available, it would be a great

1. Armentrout—*Op. Cit.* pp 16-19.
2. Bagley-Educational Administration, Vol. VIII, 1922, p 400.
3. Monograph to be published in 1931.

advantage if this plan were followed. The students under training could be assigned in groups to teachers in the Model School, with whom they would be associated in the work of managing the class throughout the year. Observation, demonstration, criticism, participation, and finally student teaching, could all centre around this contact with the school and could be organized most economically and efficiently. To see this plan, in all its entirety, we should have a proper understanding of the nature and scope of student-teaching.

The first set of general principles in regard to student teaching, arrived at by comparing the best teacher-training practices, is concerned with the school where such teaching is carried on, its relation to the training institution, its curriculum and methods, its pupils and staff, and its relation to the work of the training institution. At least three different types of schools may well be connected with the practice work of a teacher training institution The model school is more often purely a place for observation.[1] Such schools are mostly within the premises of the training college or nearby and form an integral part of the institution. In England no distinction seems to be made between a "demonstration school", a "practicing school", and a "model school".[2] When used as a kind of laboratory for the lecturers and students in which particular methods may be demonstrated and others tried under partly controlled conditions, the school is called a demonstration school. In the practicing school, the student learns to work under everyday conditions and observes or takes part in the ordinary routine.[3] The tie between a demonstration or model school and the college is closer than the one between the college and the practicing school. In the former the staff has been selected for the purposes of the college and the syllabi have been worked out in collaboration with the subject lecturers who are in many

1. Dearborn—The Oswego Movement in Education p. 15.
2. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute, p. 480.
3. Lance Jones—*Op. Cit.* p. 94.

cases in charge of the teaching in the school.[1] While the model and demonstration schools are under the control of the teacher training institution, the practicing school may be part of a public-school system.

American practice leans more toward making the model school, which is an integral part of the college, a demonstration school as well. Practicing schools may belong either to the college or to the public-school system. Of seventy-five normal schools surveyed by L. M. Wilson[2] forty-two had practice schools in the normal school itself, nine used city or village schools and twenty-four had practice or model schools and used public schools for practice. In six of the last named, the school is used for demonstration and observation. Without supplementary practice in private schools, that given in the demonstration schools alone proves inadequate. Therefore what is begun in the model school may be continued in the public schools. Only nine out of the seventy-five normal schools are without their own practicing schools. Judd and Parker say[3] that the model school is a school of observation. Its function is to present good forms of teaching, to supply concrete materials for lesson plans and class discussion on methods, to introduce the teacher to occasional teaching, to try out new methods by the faculty and it must provide a model for staff and equipment. While Wilson's study was made about 1920 and Judd and Parker's still earlier (1916), the conditions pictured are fairly typical of the situation now existing.

W. D. Armentrout says[4] that there should be three types of schools in a department of training, one for observation, one for practice and another for experimental purposes. The model school is for observation and the vitalization of theory. If used as a practicing school it

1. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute, 1927, pp. 479-80.
2. Wilson-Training Departments of Normal Schools, p. 18,
3. Judd and Parker-Problems Involved in Standardising State Normal Schools, pp. 49-50.
4. Armentrout-The Conduc tof Student Teaching, pp. 71-75.

disorganizes and discontinues the work and so the practicing school should be separate. On an experimental school hangs progress. Dr. Sadler seems to use the words 'demonstration' and 'experimental' in relation to schools without distinction. Struck with the results achieved by Dewey in the university school at Chicago, Rein in the school at Jena, and Findlay in the Fielden demonstration school at Manchester, he wished to have a similar small school of from fifty to sixty pupils, associated with the Calcutta university department of education.[1] It was to be a school of experiment under the direction of the university professor of education, distinct from the larger model and practicing schools. Its object was the practical trial of new methods of teaching, new combinations of school subjects and new plans of school organization. If ever there was a country where educational experimentation was urgently needed, it is in the India of today. So experimental schools in India would really be the satisfaction of a felt want. But they have to be adequately supported, if they are not to drift into inefficient hands and degenerate into "freak schools" following every new fad in education. They have also to be distinct. It is difficult for a training institution through its practice school to train teachers how to teach, and to demonstrate to the public innovations in the subject matter of instruction. The best it can do is to make teachers receptive to new ideas in education and capable of evaluating them.[2] In most training departments of the United States some experimentation is carried out.[3] In the model school at Trivandrum some may well be undertaken especially in testing the applicability of new methods to Travancore conditions, Otherwise the training institution will merely perpetuate the *status quo.*

Definite standards have been established as regards the minimum amount of practice which each student should have and under what conditions it should be given to him.

1. C.U.C.R., Vol. 5, p 75.
2. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, pp. 220-223.
3. Wilson-*Op. Cit.* p. 21.

These standards should be strictly adhered to, since it is during the practice period that some of the characteristics which have been discovered to be the elements in the personality of a good teacher, could be instilled into the makeup of the future teacher. In the college departments of education in the United States of America one semester of teaching practice is required, thirty clock hours in Colgate University, six semester hours in Franklin and Marshall College and in Dickinson College. In Dresden from four to six weeks of practice is required and it is taken in the vacations between the fourth and fifth and the fifth and sixth semesters.[1]

In England twelve weeks of practice teaching are required from those who have no approved previous experience. This is usually taken in periods of from two to three weeks at a time, but while some may be taken in this way the bulk may be taken, for instance, at a university department, in the form of attendance on a couple of days each week throughout the year.[2] Often the student is sent during his last year to teach one term in a school under a supervisor selected from the school staff. In other cases a student is attached to one or more masters in the school so that he may have opportunity to observe teaching methods. First he acquaints himself with the syllabi, then prepares notes of lessons with the help of the master who criticises the lesson after it is given. During the early part of the practice the student teaches one lesson a day, while later on he takes charge of the entire work. Only three or four classes are seen, the student gets well acquainted with the pupils, and there is no great fear of indiscipline in the class. He studies school organization in this manner and is in fact identified with the school life.[3]

In France, fifty half days are given to practice each year. The morning is devoted to class work in the normal

1. Alexander-Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany, p 267.
2. Educational Yearbook of the International Institute, p 479.
3. Lance Jones-*Op. Cit.* Chapter IV.

school. The afternoons and evenings are devoted to practice.[1] The normal schools of the United Provinces in India give forty-five hours of teaching practice spread over the whole year. The American Association of Teachers Colleges laid it down (1929) that "the minimum amount of student teaching required of every graduate of a teachers college shall be ninety hours of supervised teaching."

In Trivandrum each group, graduate as well as undergraduate, has in all a month for practice taken in three laps of nine days each. The average number of lessons taught in each practicing period is ten of forty minutes duration which amounts in sum to twenty clock hours. This compares but poorly with the standards the rest of the world over.

Should the practice be taken in a concentrated or a distributed form ? We have seen that in certain cases it is offered in the concentrated form while in others it is spread over a long period. Some have suggested psychological reasons for selecting the distributed system as more suited to the acquisition of skills, but the real reason is its administrative convenience. It permits of practice and theory going together. But it involves some dangers. The preparation either for practice or for the other subjects may be neglected. To teach an isolated lesson for one hour each day is a very different experience from having charge of the classroom during a short period, as this is not merely a question of skill but of insight which can come only through saturation. If the practice is concentrated it can secure the most favorable period in the course. Usually the last semester is devoted to practice teaching. It would be better if it can come during the semester immediately preceding the last, leaving the last one for a course integrating the theoretical gains from the several studies, illuminated by the period of practice.[2] In spite of all these considerations, the advantage of associating the teacher with the class he is to teach all through the year through participation is also recognized.

1. Educational Yearbook, of the International Institute p, 514.

2. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, pp. 222-225.

"There should be a period of active service as a helper or assistant to the regular teacher, especially in matters concerning class routine, coaching individual pupils, preparing materials, accompanying classes upon excursions, and arranging for dramatic festivals, together with some measure of responsible oversight of recess and play periods in connection with active participation in the smaller children's plays and games, or in the older pupil's athletic contests."[1] Later, for a brief period, he may do responsible teaching.

It is necessary that a sufficient number of pupils should be enrolled in the school for the practicing teacher. The American Association of Teachers Colleges lays it down(1929) that for every eighteen students to be given ninety hours of student teaching, there shall be a minimum group of thirty children either in the campus school or in affiliated urban or rural schools under the supervision of the teachers' college. Judd and Parker[2] lay it down that for four weeks' teaching practice in a school year of thirty-six weeks each group will take nine student teachers so that twenty children will afford practice facilities for nine teachers, one hundred children will give practice for forty-five teachers, and so the number of children required may be calculated. A formula has been devised for the purpose.[3]

$$N = 1{\cdot}30 \left(\frac{15\ S.\ C.\ M}{T} \quad \frac{4}{3} \right) \quad \text{where}$$

N=Minimal training school enrollment

S=Number of students requiring practice

C=Number of recitation units during which each student will be in charge of a section each week.

M=Proportion of total year during which practice teaching is required of each student

T=Appropriate number of recitation periods in the week.

Allied to this is the stipulation that at least two-fifths of the teaching in the school should be done by regular

1. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, p. 225.
2. Judd and Parker—*Op. Cit.* p. 54.
3. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, p. 195.

teachers of the training school or by other members of the faculty. Some hold[1] that never more than three-fourths, or better, one-half of the work in the school should be done by student teachers. The morale of the pupils in the training school has been found to be low and they do not test very high[2] when an excessive part of their instruction is given by student teachers.

The Government Training College at Allahabad with sixty students has access to about four schools each with sixteen classes and five hundred pupils.[3] Lucknow has three schools for its fifty students.[4] This is to see that each practicing teacher has enough pupils and that he does not teach too long in the same school. In the United Provinces practicing schools there is complaint from parents against practice teachers,[5] but none in Trivandrum. The total number of pupils in the model school is eight hundred thirty-four and there is always a waiting list of boys wishing to be admitted. Again the school is not dependent on the student teachers for carrying on its teaching work, being amply provided with permanent teachers for the purpose. "The model school attached to the training college at Trivandrum.....serves as practicing school for teachers under training..... It has a staff of picked teachers. But, a practicing school usually suffers in popularity owing to the belief that the children attending it are subject to experimentation by raw and inexperienced teachers. This danger, however, is more apparent than real in the case of the model school. Firstly, to counteract any such tendency, the staff of the model school is more carefully chosen than that of all other departmental institutions, the principal (of the college) being given a voice in the selection. All its teachers are trained men. Secondly, owing to the inadequate provision that exists for training teachers, many teachers do not get selected for training till they have already

1. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 15, p. 194.
2. Ibid. pp. 205-210.
3. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* p. 78.
4. Ibid. p. 83.
5. Duncan and Mackenzie—*Op. Cit.* p 57.

acquired a considerable experience of teaching before they come to the training college and it cannot therefore be said that the pupils are subject to experimentation....."[1]

Our review of the methods by which the practical part of teacher training is organized should enable us to arrange for sound teaching practice in the circumstances of the training college at Trivandrum. It is not possible to reserve the model school for observation and demonstration only, hoping to secure other facilities for experimentation and practice. All four objectives could be achieved through the model school, if the work were properly organized. We should remember that, unlike other countries, we are dealing with persons to whom the class-room is not a strange place. Other countries have pre-service education mostly. In Travancore, we have a species of inservice education. The students who are admitted to the training college often have had long experience; and they do not stand in need of practice in the narrower meaning of the word. Good models and techniques should be provided for observation; wrong methods acquired amidst unsound educational surroundings and confirmed by misplaced practice, have to be broken and rectified; but neither introduction to teaching nor continued repetition to secure skills are called for. In other countries experience in teaching is admitted to reduce the period of practice work in the training college. In England, "a smaller amount of teaching practice may be accepted in the case of persons who have had several years' experience as secondary school teachers before admission to the course."[2] Trenton, New Jersey, excuses those who have had one year or more of successful teaching experience from five weeks of responsible practice,—one-half of the period required of the others.[3] The Teachers College in Madras does not require practice teaching, but only observation and criticism lessons. Good opportunities should be

1. Report 1928-29, pp. 54-55.
2. Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools, 1911. p, 5.
3, Armentrout—*Op. Cit.* p. 70.

offered to watch teaching by master teachers under controlled conditions and perhaps facilities should be given to teach under such conditions for a short period. The practice teaching, as organized at present, hardly serves it purpose.

If, instead of concentrated practice, we selected distributed practice teaching, we should be able to realise better some of the objectives of practice teaching. Students may be divided into groups and assigned to the teachers in the model school. For instance, if there are twelve students in mathematics in the graduate class of the training college and four specialist teachers of the subject in the model school, each one of the latter would have three student teachers assigned to him. They would spend the time, when they are not attending lectures or reading in the library, with the teacher and his class, observing and participating. When the teacher is absent, any one of them may take the class. Each may prepare notes of lessons and show them to the class teacher. Toward the middle of each term a student could be given full charge of the class. In order to get acquainted over the whole field of teaching, each student teacher may well spend one term each in the different divisions of the school in which he is likely to teach in the future. In this way observation and participation would be provided for, adequate supervision would be ensured, the student teacher would get acquainted with the whole work of the school instead of handling some isolated part of the subject over widely separated periods. The question of discipline would be less serious, and in the quiet company of the master teacher a professional spirit could be developed. The actual time given to the school work during the period of training will be greatly increased.

Such a plan carries with it the appointment of critic teachers. The critic teacher will greatly enhance the value and efficiency of supervised teaching. He will relieve the subject lecturer of his correction of notes of lessons and supervision of observation and practice, and leave him free to study his subject further, to carry on some kind of

experimentation and to teach his classes through weekly or fortnightly essays. The critic teachers should be selected from among the best students of the training college in the past years and the critics as a group should be the body from whose ranks the supervisors and inspectors are chosen, thus ensuring the co-ordination of the work of the training college with the work needed in the schools. If kept doing the work which they were trained to do in the college, they will supply excellent subject lecturers to the training college. If the university should introduce the master's degree in education, the critic teachers might well be recruited from the holders of that degree. There will be more zest to the work done in the training college and a body of professionally minded men will be developed.

Under the proposed arrangement the coordination between the model school and the Training College would be improved. At present the principal of the College is the head of the model school as well and there is good coordination but the presence of a headmaster gives an independent position to the school. Attempts to place the teaching of the subjects in the school under the subject lecturers in the college, as is done in English colleges, have not succeeded. Consequently, although the model school has full liberty to follow its own curricula and textbooks, enough has not been done to construct a curriculum by cooperative effort or to determine methods of teaching school subjects required for the purposes of the college. If the headmaster of the school be recognized as the vice-principal of the college in charge of practical work, he would be able to coordinate the work of the school with the needs of the training students in the way of practice. The critic teachers would be his assistants. He might well teach the subject of school organization in the college, arrange for the practical work of the student teachers, and through the critic teachers supervise such work.[1] Thus the headmaster of the school instead of being a stranger to the college will be a most important

1, Wilson-*Op. Cit*, pp, 54-60,

member of the staff, invested with the duty of carrying out the purpose for which the model school exists.

The critic teachers would do their work by calling for lesson plans, by inspecting the teaching, by conferences, and by testing.[1] The lesson plan has two values. It gives the student teacher the main aim of a course of study and the aim of each individual lesson.[2] It shows how the lesson should take account of the aptitudes and interests of the pupils, and the psychological laws of learning, how the devices of teaching such as exposition, illustration, and questioning, should be used, and it teaches self criticism. Most normal schools get as many as one hundred and eighty lesson plans out of their students every year, some even more. Lesson planning is believed to be a most valuable part of the training.[3]

The critic teacher should visit the student teacher's classes often alone and at times with his other students, and when the lesson is over he and the student-teacher or teachers can meet together in conference and exchange criticisms. This would be a more desirable form of the criticism lesson. Conference with individuals and groups should constitute the chief means of studying the courses of study, of planning the lessons and of testing the results. It is in such conferences, where the student brings in his difficulties and takes counsel that the possibilities of professional growth are assured.[4] In England some allowance is given to critic teachers.[5] In America critic teachers are mostly a separate class though in some cases they are only the regular school teachers. But even in the latter case they are usually given a special allowance as in Franklin and Marshall College where the class teacher, in whose charge a

1. Carnegie Foundation Bulletin No. 14, pp, 214-19.
2. Colvin, in the Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, p, 190, ff.
3. Ibid p, 209,
4. Wilson-*Op. Cit.* pp. 62-89.
5. International Institute Educational Yearbook of the 1927.

student teacher is placed gets twenty-five dollars per student for the whole semester of teaching practice in return for his supervisory services. In Travancore also some material advantage should result to a teacher when he is chosen a critic teacher.

If our scheme is adopted a great saving of time can be made. Drill, drawing and manual training will not consume so many class periods as before. Criticism lessons will cease to exist by themselves and will be absorbed in the whole scheme of practical work. More individual reading can therefore be called for. If the number of the undergraduates is increased, the model school will not be able to supply practicing facilities for all. An English middle school nearby may be brought under the jurisdiction of the training college. The lecture periods for the graduates may be in the morning, the afternoons being devoted to practical work. This order may be reversed for the undergraduates, so that, in case a school at some distance is chosen for the practice work, the student-teachers may attend the college in the afternoon for lectures as in France.

A training college cannot convert the student into an expert teacher in the space of one brief year. It may instil in him the right attitude toward the work, implant ideals, and endow the basis of intellectual growth.[1] For these purposes great attention should be devoted to developing the right kind of professional atmosphere in the college. Through its experiments, its prestige in dictating educational policies and practice, its summer sessions and extension work, its alumni association and professional bulletins—in short, through its leadership in matters educational, it must again and again attract its erstwhile students and prove of the greatest professional service to them.

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1. Lance Jones-*Op. Cit.* p. 139.
Armentrout, *Op. Ccit.*pp. 50-57.

CHAPTER VIII.

Conclusion and Recommendations.

"For want of training, a teacher was lost; for want of a teacher, a school was lost; for want of a school, a community wast lost."[1] It is not easy to recognize that those who work in the secluded atmosphere of a teacher training institution, may yet be dealing with some vital problems of a nation. If ever there was a country where education, more education and still more education are needed as a panacea for the ills of society, it is, India.[2] If ever there was a time when education needed to be completely remade, it is in the India of today. In such a country, at such a time, the teacher has to play not a routine part, but a creative and constructive part. The aims and ideals of Indian education and the curricula which should achieve them may still be in the making; the methods of education that will suit Indian conditions may still remain to be originated or adapted; the organization that will ensure education's adequate response to the needs of the people may not have been as yet conceived. Under these conditions to train the proper kind of teacher is not merely to make up for any such defects in Indian education, but also to create the professional opinion that will speedily rectify age-long shortcomings. An enquiry, therefore, into the training of teachers for a significant class of schools in a secluded part of India, may transcend in importance the narrow bounds of territorialism or departmentalism.

It is with such a conception of the importance of the task that the following recommendations are made for the professional preparation of the teachers :—

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1. Allen—Rockefeller, p. 409.
2. See the writer's contribution in the "Proceedings of the Seventeenth Schoolmen's Week." University of Pennsylvania, 1930, pp. 322—325.

1. The training college should be a separate institution solely devoted to the professional education of teachers.

2. The ideal should be pre-service education, with the object of providing a trained teacher for every teaching situation.

3. The number of students admitted for training should be determined by the needs of the service for trained recruits.

4. The minimum qualification for teaching in the high school should be four years of college plus one year's professional preparation; but there should be a goodly sprinkling of men with five years of college training.

5. The tendency should be to take the graduate further and further down in the English school, and to send the displaced undergraduate more and more into the vernacular schools.

6. The lower levels of the school should be increasingly staffed with women to provide kindergarten and pre-school education.

7. In the determination of the kind of training to be given, differentiation should be made between teachers in "English" and teachers in "Vernacular Schools", and among teachers in primary, middle and high schools.

8. The training college should provide courses in child education and in the special methods of teaching geography and the Indian languages.

9. While the general values of drill, drawing and manual training should be made available for all teachers under training, each teacher should be able to specialize according to his needs and tastes.

10. The lecture should cease to be the sole method of teaching and should be supplemented by discussion, essay writing and project work.

11. While the objective should be to "train" the undergraduate to be a skilled craftsman, it must be to "educate" the graduate into an educational thinker.

12. The master's degree in education should be introduced into the univerity.

13. Practice teaching should be organized on the distributed plan, providing for observation, demonstration, open lessons, participatien and student teaching.

14. The headmaster of the model school should be made the vice-principal of the Training College, in charge of the practice work, and critic teachers should be appointed to supervise such work under his direction.

15. Some educational experimentation should be carried out in the model school, and part of the practice teaching should be shifted to an adjoining middle school.

16. Everything should be done to instil a professional spirit in the teacher and to create in each a professional personality.

17. The college should hold summer sessions, organize an alumni association, and aim in every way to be of light and leading in professional matters.

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VITA.

Daniel Jivanayakam was born in 1891 of parents whose forefathers had been converted to Christianity more than a hundred years ago, by missionaries belonging to the London Missionary Society. His home town is the headquarters of the mission in South India and he went to the mission school and college and proceeded to study for senior college in H. H. The Maharaja's College at Trivandrum the capital of the Indian state of Travancore of which he is a citizen. He graduated with a First Class and was awarded a gold medal for being the best student of the year. He was soon after appointed tutor in the College, first in English, then in History and Economics. While so employed he took the Master's degree, also in the first division. After six years of college work he went out as first assistant in the Model school and later became Lecturer in Education in the training college. In this capacity he was closely associated with the work of the University of Madras to which the college is affiliated and was appointed Honorary Reader in Education. Publications iuclude "Theory and Practice of Education" and the "Dalton Plan". In 1929 he was awarded a Macy grant by the International Institute of Teachers College and became a student for the Doctor's Degree.

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